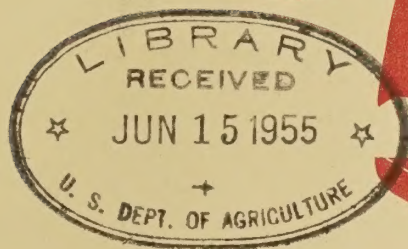


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1954

# Workbook

for EXTENSION NUTRITIONISTS



Compiled by EVELYN L. BLANCHARD

Federal Extension Service

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# A WORKBOOK FOR EXTENSION NUTRITIONISTS

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## A WORKBOOK FOR EXTENSION NUTRITIONISTS

Evelyn L. Blanchard, Extension Nutritionist

This workbook brings out highlights of three Extension nutrition workshops.<sup>1</sup> Information presented by consultants, and the discussions by nutrition specialists and home demonstration agents, have been combined. More material has been added where necessary to make a more useful workbook. Material from the 1952 workbook has been revised.

The practical suggestions brought out by various groups may help you to solve some of your own problems, whether or not you have been able to attend a workshop.

In any good workshop, many points of view are presented. Everyone takes an active part in committee work and discussion. Each group is organized around problems which participants outline. The democratic way in which a workshop is conducted enables members to share in working out answers to problems.

This workbook is based on the wide experience of consultants, nutrition specialists, and agents attending workshops conducted by the Federal extension nutritionist.

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<sup>1</sup> National Extension Nutrition Workshop, University of Arkansas, July 1951; and workshops at the Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College, Tex., June 1952, and Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College, Fort Collins, Colo., July 1953.

## TEACHING IN A DEMOCRACY

### A Philosophy

To develop democratic thinking we need to use democratic methods. Our job as extension workers is to help people help themselves. We need to give them the facts so that they can think through the problem and make their own decision. A well-conducted discussion is one method that can be used to stimulate people to think.

Are you sometimes inclined to tell people what to do rather than motivate them to improve their attitudes and habits? Simply telling people what they should eat does not change their food habits. You must stimulate people to want a well-balanced diet to the extent that they will actually follow this diet.

When working with various cultural groups you need to consider their customs and food preferences, and decide with them whether changes are desirable. Food habits that need changing should be changed gradually. Improving the diet a step at a time may prove more successful than trying to get a radical change at once. Remember, too, that the information you are giving out may be the best at present but may not continue to be so as more research is done and more facts are developed.

Attitudes toward food reflect attitudes toward life. Children who are unhappy and insecure bring their attitudes to the table. The relation of food to our emotions is receiving much attention and investigation.

We as Extension workers sometimes give great emphasis to the subject matter we are teaching and not enough to the human beings we teach. The methods we select for teaching foods and nutrition are of prime importance, if we are to develop people. Lecturing to a group or demonstrating a skill is rarely enough. This does not develop the person nor does it usually lead to the action desired. Some research has indicated that group discussion leading to a decision produces more action than does the lecture method.<sup>2</sup>

Consider your program carefully. Does it really contribute to better living? Is the method you are using best adapted to the material you are trying to teach? Are you considering the human being you are trying to teach? Are you using the democratic approach in your teaching?

Many democratic values are important to a satisfying personal and social life. The extension worker should recognize each individual as a human being and give people the opportunity to participate in many types of social activity; should encourage personality differences among people; and should have faith in people's intelligence as a means of dealing with significant problems.

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<sup>2</sup> What Research Shows About Group Discussion Leading to a Group Decision. Gladys Gallup. 14 pp. U. S. Dept. Agr., Fed. Ext. Ser., Washington 25, D. C. 1950.

The content of the Extension program and the methods by which it is determined reflect the philosophy of Extension held by those responsible for its leadership. But whatever the objectives, Extension philosophy is shown best in its operation and the objectives it stresses most.





## NUTRITION PROGRAMS

### Guides to Developing a Nutrition Program

In any cooperative extension program, whether National, State, county, or community, there are certain basic principles or concepts to which a good program must conform, if that program is to have a marked effect, either temporary or longtime, upon the lives or actions of the people.

The following are guides in developing a nutrition program:

1. Base the program upon the recognized needs and interests of the people themselves. Develop it out of their daily lives and experiences.
2. Consider with those planning, all the known facts that may have a bearing on the program.
3. Define objectives at all levels. The objectives of the women may be stated differently from your objectives as a professional worker. These objectives must be thoroughly understood by all those who plan and execute the program.
4. Consider the needs and interests of the entire family. Also recognize the influence of related community, State, National, and international problems.
5. Keep the program flexible, so that it may be altered to meet the changing needs of the people. It must meet shorttime and longtime situations and special emergencies.
6. Start where people are. Programs are too often above the heads of the people concerned. Groups can and should advance, but they must start from their present situations. Nutrition principles should be translated into foods and everyday meals.
7. Help people to broaden their interests, attitudes, and concepts in addition to giving them information.
8. Teach people to help themselves. Otherwise, the value of the program will be only temporary. Extension should help to provide the tools and assist in their effective use, but only as a means for teaching.
9. Make maximum use of local leaders in planning and carrying out the program. Their effective training should be a definite part of the plan.
10. Use organization as a tool to accomplish objectives. Organization should never be an end in itself. Simplicity of organization should be maintained along with full opportunity for participation in the program, not necessarily in the organization of the greatest number on the local level.

11. Evaluate frequently. Nothing is more likely to be fatal than insistence today on a program that meets yesterday's needs.

### Planning a Nutrition Program

The interests and needs of homemakers as well as factual data about the community should be used as a basis for planning programs of work in counties. Check sheets, questionnaires, surveys, and meetings have been used as devices. However, programs planned sometimes represent temporary interests or the interests of a few women who talked most at program-planning meetings. An advisor who will give her honest opinion on the needs and also the plans for carrying out the program is a real help. Effective programs are a year-round job.

If program planning is to be a sound educational activity, then those responsible for it need appropriate training to help them do a good job. Those who are to be responsible for program planning should be carefully chosen. They need help in understanding the basic educational principles involved. They need knowledge and understanding of the research that has a bearing on the program. This information comes from State universities and colleges and from national agencies and groups.

Some of the responsibilities and activities in which program planning leaders may need training, are:

1. How to lead discussion.
2. How to learn homemakers' needs, interests, and attitudes.
3. How to recognize fundamental problems and needs in contrast to immediate and temporary interests.
4. How to note problems raised at leader-training schools that indicate the need for additional training.
5. How to interpret local economic health and social situations.
6. How to take advantage of agent, specialist, and other sources of help in determining subject-matter trends and economic and social situations.
7. How to keep a record of suggestions and to organize and interpret material for presentation at program-planning meetings.
8. How to set objectives for prospective programs.

Nutritional Status and Food Consumption Studies.--Studies of this type may be used effectively in program planning. The nutrition specialist needs to interpret this information in order to make her teaching more effective. An example is found in: Family Food Consumption in Three Types of Farming Areas of the South--I. An Analysis of 1947 Food Data. 142 pp. Inst. of Statis., N. C. State Col. 1950.

## How to strengthen your program through cooperation

One of the best ways to strengthen the nutrition program is to get other people to work on it with you. The first step is to sell yourself on the importance of cooperation. The more people become interested and know about your program the more interest in the program grows. The more you understand and help with the programs of others, the more ideas you get yourself. You must stimulate the interest of the State extension staff in the nutrition program. The district agents as well as the director and State leader and 4-H staff should know about your program.

Become acquainted with the personnel of each organization working in the field of foods and nutrition.

Develop a genuine interest in their program.

Find out what they are doing in the nutrition field.

Offer cooperation.

Keep up-to-date mailing lists of these groups.

Acquaint groups with information available through Extension offices. An exchange of publications, research findings, and teaching devices may be mutually helpful.

Some of the specialists with whom you can integrate your program are those in the following fields:

Animal husbandry	Gardening
4-H Club	Health
Editorial	Home management
Consumer education	Horticulture
Family life	Marketing
Food preservation	Poultry husbandry

Some related agencies in your State or county with which you may cooperate:

Public health	Rural Electrification Administration
School lunch	Vocational Home Economics
Resident staff of college and university	Research
	Veterans' Administration

Other organized groups with which to cooperate:

Church groups	Parent-teacher associations
Civic groups	Red Cross
Farm groups	Rural schools
Garden and other women's clubs	Welfare groups
Libraries	

Commercial groups that may help with nutrition education:

Appliance dealers	Newspapers
Commercial food companies	Radio stations
Frozen food lockers	Television stations
Local merchants	Utility companies

Hold membership in State and National organizations, such as--

Dietetic Association	State nutrition council
Home Economics Association	Women's service clubs
University or college clubs	

### Some principles of program coordination

Though principles of coordination in any field of work are likely to be similar, each group is encouraged to develop its own statement because the process of developing such a statement is valuable in clarifying thinking and attitudes.

1. What is coordination?
  - a. Coordination is a social process of development and not a program to be administered.
  - b. Good coordination always relates to specific jobs and goals, both longtime and immediate.
  - c. Coordination is a means to an end and not an end in itself.
2. Who should be represented in a coordinated effort?
  - a. People who participate in the coordination must represent those who have a contribution to make and who are affected by the results.
  - b. Participants must have an interest in and a common understanding of each other's purposes, plans, resources, limitations, and responsibilities.
3. What makes for a successfully coordinated program?
  - a. Real participation in cooperation is dependent on faith in the process.
  - b. Agencies, institutions, and groups must recognize that in a coordinated effort to solve common problems their individual programs may need to be adjusted.
  - c. A participating member must have a clear understanding of his responsibilities as a representative of his group.
  - d. Representatives must be given enough authority by their groups to deal effectively with the problems to be solved, so there will be a minimum of modification of recommended plans when these are submitted for administrative approval to their respective groups.
  - e. Coordination necessitates group allocation of responsibilities to those that can make specific contributions to the achievement of the goals.

- f. Coordination depends for its success on the increasing willingness of participants to work together objectively in such a way that each can make his best contribution to the solution of the problem.
  - g. When a group decision has been reached in the process of coordination those participating in the decision must be willing to accept it and work in accordance with it.
4. What are the advantages of coordinating a program?
- a. Coordination strengthens the participating agencies, organizations, and groups.
  - b. At the same time it gives added assurance of solving common problems.

#### Home visits as a basis for programs

Home visits make an excellent basis for program planning and program completion.

Esther Foley, home service editor for McFadden Publications, has summed up valuable information, derived in a study of readers, which has its application for the extension home economist. First, we may consider some of Miss Foley's findings as excerpted from a talk she made called A Visit With My Homemakers.<sup>1</sup> Her analysis relates particularly to readers of True Story magazine and, of course, represents generalizations of instances reviewed.

Miss Foley gets her information from the recipes homemakers submit to her and from her monthly home interviews. She finds recipes are a good indication of what the women like to eat. Readers send in about 900 letters a month, containing 1,800 recipes. A complete file of these is kept as an index of how the group eats.

The interview during a homemaker visit is planned well ahead, and never lasts more than 2 hours--more often only one. The selected "cook" knows exactly what is expected.

#### "A Visit With My Homemakers"

Readers of True Story come from wage-earner families; that is, they work with their hands and are paid by the hour. Fifty percent of the families in our country are in this group.

The House: What are wage-earner families like? They live in thickly populated neighborhoods, not on pretty residential streets. Their houses are close together, the streets narrow. Painting and repairs are piecemeal.

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<sup>1</sup> Esther Foley, home service editor, McFadden Publications, speaking at the Colorado Nutrition Workshop, Fort Collins, Colo., 1953.

About 54 percent of the families own their homes. They do not employ household help. They live at the rear of the house and use the back door for coming and going. They have television sets and attractive, bright, well-equipped kitchens.

The Kitchen: The kitchen, in fact, is the best-equipped and best-looking room in the house. It is a real family center. It is a cheerful room with many colors, many patterns, lots of light, but is badly arranged for efficiency. The families always have a good refrigerator and are very careful not to waste food. The large kitchen equipment is new, of good quality, with a table where the family usually eats. Many have freezers--often on the back porch.

Family life is carried on in the kitchen. The family table is there, and also the baby chair. Housewives seldom even want separate dinettes. They like large kitchens.

The Food: Families usually eat well. Their fear of hunger may be the reason they spend more of their income on food than most people. Cash income is no indication of food standards. Readers spend about one-third of their wages on food. The young homemakers learn their patterns of food preparation mostly from their mothers-in-law because of their desire to please their husbands. The women are "man-dominated."

Families have "good diets" but eat little fruit. They seldom broil meats, for they like them well done with plenty of gravy. They use large quantities of noodles, rice, potatoes, and bread, but not much butter or margarine. They prefer to "sop up" bread with gravy. They don't care for cake mixes because the product is "too fragile"--a more solid cake will pack better in the lunch box. They don't use cooking short cuts. Their greatest extravagance in food is desserts, with which they use whipped cream, nuts, and the like. They eat lots of cold slaw, stewed prunes, and canned pineapple. The children drink milk.

Vegetables used have little variety--lettuce, carrots, tomatoes; homemakers are not venturesome about new foods.

The breakfast patterns are amazing to many of us--often including frankfurters and cornbread. On the other hand, mothers bring up their children carefully under a doctor's directions. They give vitamins and milk until about the age 6 or 7--then relax. The school youngsters and teenagers, especially girls, get poorer foods, so it actually is fortunate that they marry young, for they get back into better health habits because of the desire to help their children.

The Family: Wage earners are emotional and alive; as just said, they marry very young; 1 out of 3 girls 17 to 19 years old is married. They start to work young and reach their maximum wage 5 years after they start, as compared with the average college man who takes 10 years to reach maximum.

The average education of this group is first-year high school - most members leaving after they are 15 years old because they feel the economic necessity for earning a living.

Most entertainment is a family affair; seldom is a party given just for children or for a group of women friends. A favorite meal is well-cooked beef loaf seasoned with tomato, potato chips, pickle, lime gelatin with pear, and lots of coffee served in the evening.

This group is content with the "status quo." Members don't want to leave their neighborhood. They feel life is now, not tomorrow or next year. They live for today, seldom save for tomorrow. Few women between the ages of 35 and 55 years read much. After 55, they start reading again.

#### Some conclusions and applications for the extension worker

- I. Many rural nonfarm families belong to the wage-earner class. Miss Foley's observations of their interests and needs suggest ways of approaching them and of fitting Extension programs to their requirements.
- II. Successful home visits require careful planning but yield valuable information for adapting the program to the needs of the people.

#### Suggestions for successful home visits:

1. Have a definite reason for the home visit; tell the family why you are coming. One of the following reasons may serve as a wedge for getting into people's homes:
    - a. Collect recipes homemakers have for using surplus seasonal foods.
    - b. Select a subject of interest to homemakers--canning, for example. Ask what canning problems the housewife has, with a future demonstration in mind.
    - c. Conduct a survey or have several timely questions to ask; for instance, "How much milk does your family use--fresh, evaporated, dried?"
    - d. Mention newspaper articles the women may have read that you wrote, or a radio program or television show they may be familiar with.
  2. Plan and make an appointment in advance, and be sure to be on time.
- III. Try to find out during the interview, without getting too inquisitive:
1. What families eat and when.
  2. What kind of equipment (large and small they use)
  3. Where the money goes.
  4. What food and nutrition problems they would like help with.



## EVALUATION

### Evaluating a Nutrition Program

Evaluating a nutrition program means determining the strength and weakness or value of nutrition teaching.

#### Why evaluate

- To determine progress with any given activity or job.
- To find out if we are accomplishing what we set out to do, if objectives are being reached.
- To check up on the effectiveness of certain methods or activities.
- To learn whether desirable changes are taking place.
- To give us a feeling of satisfaction, accomplishment, and confidence in ourselves and in our service.

#### How to evaluate

Three steps must be taken to evaluate any program:

- (1) Examine and clarify objectives.
- (2) Gather evidence.
- (3) Analyze the evidence.

To evaluate an overall nutrition program in a State would be difficult. However, it might be evaluated in such parts as:

<u>Methods</u>	<u>Results in terms of changes in people</u>
Agent training.	Changed behavior.
Leader training.	Skills developed.
Meetings.	Knowledge gained.
Teaching methods.	Changed attitudes.
Teaching materials.	

#### Types of evaluation

There are three types of evaluation and many ways of collecting evidence.

(1) Informal evaluation.--The everyday evaluation of work that we do continuously. Most of our evidence comes from--

Observations.	Farm and home visits.	Discussions.
Office calls.	Meetings.	Local leader reports.

(2) More formal evaluation.--A systematic way of evaluating phases of our work. Much of our evidence comes from--

- Report forms that farmers, homemakers, or leaders fill out.
- Mailed questionnaires.
- Attitudes, opinions, or interest checks used at meetings.
- Small surveys of samples, checking on 1 or 2 items.

(3) Formal evaluation studies.--A more scientific type of evaluation than one can usually do alone. Much of the evidence comes from surveys. Surveys can best be done with the help of specially trained personnel.

Results of evaluation.--These can help you to:

- Identify needs for further efforts.
- Plan future programs.
- Set up objectives.
- Improve teaching methods.
- Improve teaching materials.
- Report to the public.
- Prepare annual reports.

#### Sample evaluation outline

The objectives in evaluating a protein-value program should tell which of the people will do what.

As an example, families in a given State were taught to know the value of all types of proteins used in meals.

Leaders were trained to use effective methods in giving nutrition information to families that attended the meetings.

#### (1) What was taught

Specific information given to reach objectives included:

- Kinds of proteins.
- Their relative cost.

#### (2) Teaching methods used

Leader-training meetings, with

- Illustrative material.
- Posters.
- Charts.
- Films.

Protein dishes prepared without meat.

(3) Evidence to look for

To determine whether people learned what was taught.  
To note what they did as a result.

Number of families that--

Served meat less frequently.  
Served more milk, cheese, eggs, fish, peas, and beans.  
Used a greater variety of proteins.  
Planned meals with proteins other than meat more carefully  
for taste and eye appeal.  
Spent less money each week for meat.

Number of homemakers that were less worried over food budget.

(4) Sampling the population

Defining the population--that is, whom you expect to do something  
about what you are teaching--in this case:

All homemakers attending meetings on the protein unit.

Selecting the sample--choosing a smaller number from the whole group  
in such a way that answers would apply to the whole group.

PROTEIN QUESTIONNAIRE

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Address \_\_\_\_\_

1. Check the number in your family who fall into the different age groups:  
Under 5 \_\_, 5-9 \_\_, 10-14 \_\_, 15-20 \_\_, all over 20 \_\_.
2. Check the amount of money spent weekly for food for your family:  
\$10-\$14 \_\_, \$15-\$19 \_\_, \$20-\$24 \_\_, \$25-\$30 \_\_.
3. Check the protein foods you have served your family for the last 2 days:

	1st day			2d day		
	B*	L*	D*	B	L	D
<u>Meats</u>						
Beef. . . . .						
Lamb. . . . .						
Veal. . . . .						
Pork. . . . .						
Poultry . . . . .						

\*B-breakfast; L-lunch; D-dinner.

	1st day			2d day		
	B	L	D	B	L	D
<u>Meats--continued</u>						
Fish . . . . .						
Liver. . . . .						
Other meat organs. .						
<u>Dairy products</u> <u>and eggs</u>						
Milk						
Fresh . . . . .						
Canned . . . . .						
Dried . . . . .						
Eggs . . . . .						
Cheeses . . . . .						
<u>Legumes</u>						
Beans. . . . .						
Peas . . . . .						
Other . . . . .						
<u>Cereals and products</u> <u>made of grain</u>						
Wheat . . . . .						
Oats . . . . .						
Corn . . . . .						
Combinations . . . .						
Dark breads . . . . .						
White breads . . . . .						
Rice						
White . . . . .						
Brown . . . . .						
<u>Nuts and nutlike</u> <u>products</u>						
Peanuts . . . . .						
Peanut butter . . . .						
Walnuts . . . . .						

4. Do you regularly serve meat or fish once a day? \_\_\_\_\_
5. If answer to preceding question is no, give one or more reasons why you do not serve meat once a day \_\_\_\_\_.
6. The day no meat is served, what foods are served in place of meat? \_\_\_\_\_.
7. What are your greatest problems of keeping within your weekly food budget? \_\_\_\_\_.

## Use of data

The results obtained from the data will indicate what kinds of proteins are being used in the homes of leaders coming to the protein unit and the amount of money they spend weekly for food.

The weekly news releases, the weekly menu, and any radio talks that may be given will stress the nutritive value of the cheaper proteins used to a limited extent by these families. The amount of money spent weekly for food by the leaders can be compared with the reported amount spent weekly on the second questionnaire sent a year later. Due consideration must be given to price changes, which can be obtained from the monthly retail food price reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Should the data show little change in the variety of proteins served, and in the weekly amount of money spent for food in the majority of families, it will indicate that attitudes and food habits have not changed appreciably. The future program under those circumstances could well include the family relations specialist or the home management specialist, or both, in order to achieve greater cooperation in the family concerning the amount of money spent for food.

The relationship between the amount of money spent for food in the families with three or more children, and the kinds of proteins served, will be useful data for a future unit on Food for Families With Children.

### Planning a Questionnaire To Learn Needs<sup>1</sup>

A successful program is based on the needs of the people. How to help people discover their needs is a big problem. In this fundamental task, the nutrition specialist can assist the county program-planning group. One of her methods of assistance may be to help the group plan and word questionnaires, or check sheets, or work on specific problems.

Following are two examples of such questionnaires. One is to find facts regarding the use of milk in the county; the other is a simple check sheet to find to what extent leafy, green, and yellow vegetables are being used in the diet.

The specialist can later aid in tabulating, analyzing, and interpreting the results, so the program-planning group can use the information.

The purpose of this first questionnaire is to determine the quantity of milk consumed by the entire family as well as by age groups within the family. The information may serve as an indication of a need for an educational program on the use of milk.

---

<sup>1</sup> Report of Program Planning Committee, Colorado Workshop. 1953

Homemakers' Report on Use of Milk in \_\_\_\_\_ County.

1. Number of family members eating at home \_\_\_\_\_. (Family members include all people living in your house.)
2. Fill in blanks below.

Age groups	Number of family members in each group	For the past month, what is the average number of glasses of milk drunk per day by members of these family groups?
0 to 5 years		
6 to 12 years		
13 to 18 years		
Over 18 years		

3. Are there any family members who do not drink milk? Yes \_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_.  
If so, fill in below the number in each age group who do not drink milk.

0 to 5 years \_\_\_\_\_  
 6 to 12 years \_\_\_\_\_  
 13 to 18 years \_\_\_\_\_  
 Over 18 years \_\_\_\_\_

4. Check the reasons why these family members do not drink milk.

Don't like milk \_\_\_\_\_  
 Allergic to milk \_\_\_\_\_  
 Milk seldom offered \_\_\_\_\_  
 Milk too expensive \_\_\_\_\_  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_

5. Check below the source of your family milk supply.

Produced at home \_\_\_\_\_  
 Bought at store \_\_\_\_\_  
 Delivered to your door \_\_\_\_\_

6. Check below the form of milk your family drinks.

Raw whole milk \_\_\_\_\_  
 Pasteurized whole milk \_\_\_\_\_  
 Fresh skim milk \_\_\_\_\_  
 Dry skim milk \_\_\_\_\_  
 Buttermilk \_\_\_\_\_  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_

7. Check below the form (or forms) of milk you use in cooking.

Fluid whole milk \_\_\_\_\_  
Dry skim milk \_\_\_\_\_  
Buttermilk \_\_\_\_\_  
Evaporated milk \_\_\_\_\_  
Condensed milk \_\_\_\_\_  
Other \_\_\_\_\_

8. Estimate the total number of quarts of milk your family uses each week. Include all forms of milk used for cooking and drinking.

Total quarts of milk \_\_\_\_\_

# Use of Leafy, Green, and Yellow Vegetables in the Home

Please complete this check sheet, which is to be given to the foods project leader at the close of today's club meeting.

The information is needed:

1. That we may know how many families are using leafy, green, and yellow vegetables.
2. To assist in planning next year's food program.

Questions:

1. How many members are in your family? \_\_\_\_\_ (Includes all people eating dinner in your home.)
2. Did you have a garden this summer? Yes \_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_.

Please check how many times a week you served a leafy, green, or yellow vegetable during the summer (June, July, August). Include fresh, canned, or frozen vegetables.

During the summer, I served the following vegetables the number of times I checked:	An average of 6 or more times a week (72 or more times during summer)	An average of 3 to 5 times a week (36 to 60 times during summer)	An average of 1 to 2 times a week (12 to 24 times during summer)	An average of less than once a week (1 to 12 times during summer)	Not served during summer
Swiss chard.....					
Collards.....					
Turnip greens.....					
Mustard greens.....					
Spinach.....					
Lettuce.....					
Endive.....					
Green pepper.....					
English peas.....					
Asparagus.....					
String beans.....					
Green lima beans..					
Okra.....					
Broccoli.....					
Brussels sprouts..					
Cabbage.....					
Watercress.....					
Parsley.....					
Carrots.....					
Yellow squash.....					
Pumpkin.....					
Rutabaga.....					
Sweet potatoes....					

## Criteria for writing questions.<sup>2</sup>

Purpose: To use in measuring extension teaching:

1. All questions should be field-tested.
2. Include a statement giving purpose of questionnaire.
3. All report forms should carry a year and date line and some identification such as type of questions and name of county extension service.
4. All questions asked should have a definite relation to a goal or objective which was set up before any teaching was done.
5. The form should be marked to indicate whether it is to be filled out by the individual, the local leader, or is for a county summary form.
6. All questions should have validity -
  - a. Face validity--does the question measure what you think you are measuring?
  - b. Curricula validity--will the answer give an adequate sample of information taught?
7. If principles were included in the teaching, be sure to cover them in the questions.
8. Ask only questions that are concrete and have definite answers.
9. The questions should be in a simple form, easily understood by cooperators, using a minimum of extension terms.
10. Avoid questions that involve more than one idea.
11. No question should give a clue to the response desired. For example, changed is a better term than improved. In other words do not use leading questions.
12. Provide space for the cooperator to indicate that the question does not apply in her case.
13. To make questions clear, specify time limit.
  - a. Wrong: How many eggs do you eat?
  - b. Right: How many eggs did you eat last week?
14. In each question make clear the type of answer wanted (terms or units).
15. Have adequate space in which to write each answer. Whenever possible use a check for an answer.
16. The tabulation sheet should be made up at the same time the questionnaire or report form is made up.
17. The form should be set up to make tabulation easy.
18. At present it seems desirable for all homemakers to participate in filling out the questionnaire with provisions being made for local people to assist in tabulating.

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<sup>2</sup> Prepared by a Committee of Home Demonstration Agents in Maryland with the assistance of Gladys Gallup. U. S. Dept. Agr., Fed. Ext. Serv.

## Obtaining reports from homemakers.

Purpose: To help analyze effectiveness of teaching.

Extension agents or specialists in many States have developed small questionnaires or report forms which they use to collect information regarding the adoption of practices. These report forms are designed to be filled out by persons who participate in extension programs in their subject-matter fields. Some of the questionnaires are to be filled out by the rural families themselves. Some are to be filled out by the agents or by leaders for their groups.

The first main problem has to do with the questions asked. To get an idea as to what the rural women would include, the phases to be checked on might be set up by the specialist in cooperation with the agent and leaders at the teaching meeting. Under this plan, at the end of each meeting taught by the specialist, agent, or leader, there would be a short discussion on "How are we going to measure today's work on the subjects we have been talking about?"

Phases suggested might have to be worked into appropriate questions later on. In any case, the questions on the report forms should be carefully worded to make them concise and clear. Here are some points that should be considered when report forms are prepared:

Instructions as to how to get records are helpful.--When leaders are to collect the information, there should be some brief instructions for them, giving suggestions on how they can obtain the records. When records are obtained by mail, special incentive to return the report forms is particularly important.

Example: Instructions to leaders.--The food leader should get the following information from members in her group soon after the last food meeting she holds. The questions may be asked the whole group and hands raised, or the leader can get the answers individually from the members. In either case, the total number reporting should be recorded. A report of the work accomplished helps a leader to measure the results of her own efforts and helps the home demonstration agent make her annual report.

Report forms should be provided for everyone included in the sample, even though some of them may have only "No" answers. The record of the total number reporting is important. There is value in the answers of those who do not follow the practice, and in the answers of those to whom the question does not apply. Part of the training of leaders and rural groups to participate in measuring extension teaching effectiveness should stress the value of a "no" answer, or a "don't know" answer. In fact the report form should provide specifically for these answers, instead of providing only a dash after the question. Use this form:

Example:

Have you ever attended an extension nutrition study group before?  
(a) Yes \_\_\_\_\_. (b) No \_\_\_\_\_. (c) Don't know \_\_\_\_\_.

Face data:--When getting homemakers to answer questions about their food practices, you may want to ask them for additional information about themselves or their families that will help in interpreting the answers on food practices. Such information is called "face data." Exactly what questions of this type are included may depend on the purpose the specialist has in mind in planning the entire report form. Generally, such questions as these have been found helpful in interpreting information on family food practices.

### References

Reports and Evaluation. Kelsey and Hearne. Cooperative Extension Work, chap. XVII, pp. 215-288. Comstock Pub. Co., Ithaca, N. Y. 1949.

General Statement on Evaluation. Ralph W. Tyler. Jour. Ed. Res. March 1942.

Obtain Reports From Homemakers That Will Help Us Analyze the Effectiveness of Our Teaching. Mary L. Collings. U. S. Dept. Agr., Fed. Ext. Serv., Washington 25, D. C. 1949.



## METHODS OF TEACHING

### Selecting Methods<sup>1</sup>

Selecting the best method to teach nutrition means choosing the right tool for the job. We may approach a problem in many ways and still come out with the right answer. Some ways are better than others, and so it is in Extension when we are selecting methods to teach nutrition.

Getting our objectives clear is the first step. To select the best method, we think through the objectives carefully. We ask ourselves:

1. What are we going to teach about nutrition? Experience has shown that being definite, and teaching a few points well will bring better results than trying to cover too much at one time. To concentrate on one or two vitamins that might be low in the diet is better than teaching about all vitamins in a single meeting.
2. Why are we teaching this subject? What action do we expect the group to take? To know what we should eat for breakfast is not enough. We want actually to eat a good breakfast and to understand why a good breakfast is important to health.
3. Whom are we going to teach? Are they young homemakers, young 4-H members, teen-agers, or mixed groups of men and women? Do they have a fixed cultural pattern? What will cause the particular group to change? Do we expect to influence a large number of people slightly or to have a small number make maximum progress?
4. How are we going about teaching the subject we have decided upon to the groups we hope to teach?

After having our objectives well in mind let us look at the possible methods we may use in Extension to attack our problem.

Methods classified according to use:

Individual contacts	Group contacts	Mass contacts
Farm and home visits Office calls Telephone calls Personal letters Result demonstrations	Method demonstration meetings Work meetings Leader training meetings Lecture meetings Conferences and discussion meetings Meetings at result demonstrations Miscellaneous meetings Tours Schools	Bulletins Leaflets News articles Circular letters Radio Television Exhibits Posters

<sup>1</sup> Selecting Methods. Evelyn L. Blanchard, Nutrition Committee News, Washington, D. C. July-August 1954.

Extension field studies conducted over a period of years have shown that people change their behavior in proportion to the number of their contacts with different teaching methods.

For example, as the number of different contacts increases from 1 to 9 the number of farm families changing behavior increases from 35 to 98 percent. The conclusion is obvious that if widespread response is desired, people must be "exposed" to educational teaching effort in several different ways. This is but another way of saying that repetition in a variety of ways is exceedingly important to learning. It means, too, that many different methods are necessary to reach groups that vary in education and culture.

#### A good breakfast campaign

To further illustrate the application of method to problem, let us select a problem and see what methods we might use in attacking it. Consider the matter of getting the children in X community to eat a better breakfast. A rough survey and observation have revealed that many children are coming to school without any breakfast while others have extremely poor breakfasts. At 4-H Club meetings, the topic has been discussed. Many of the children do not eat breakfast, and the idea is spreading that going to school without it is the thing to do. Need for work on the breakfast program seems obvious.

Whom do we hope to reach by our better breakfast project? First the children themselves, next the parents and teachers. Although we hope to educate parents and teachers to understand the importance of a good breakfast, and what makes a good one, our real aim is to motivate the children so they will not only know what constitutes a good breakfast, and the need of one, but will actually eat one each morning.

#### How are we going to tackle this problem?

We must consider how important the problem is and how much time, effort, and money we can afford to spend on it and who can help with it. In the case of a better breakfast program it is important to get as much help as possible, so we look around to see what other agencies, organizations, clubs, or groups might help. Some of those approached will show a keen interest. In our example, teachers, school lunch workers, members of parent-teacher associations, and public health nutritionists indicated a vital interest in cooperating. Some clubs and other groups were mildly interested and were called on to help after the program was under way.

To establish more accurately how much importance should be given the problem of a good breakfast, and at a later date to permit evaluating our efforts, we need to find out the present situation by having the children keep a food record.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> Evaluating Progress. Gladys Gallup, Nutrition Committee News, Washington, D. C. July-August 1954.

The food records give a more nearly correct idea of the problems. From these we can tell whether our greatest problem is that the children eat no breakfast or that the food they eat is not adequate. We can also tell what foods need to be stressed, such as more fruit or milk or eggs.

In our community X, let us say that although 15 percent of the children eat no breakfast, 30 percent do not get enough vitamin C and 50 percent do not get enough milk, so these are the points we wish to stress.

Since we are interested in reaching large numbers of parents, we decide to use mass media. Some ways of reaching parents most easily are through newspaper articles, pamphlets, radio, television, and group meetings. We plan to reach the children through the school program and 4-H Club meetings.

West Virginia, in a statewide nutrition program, obtained the cooperation of all interested groups through newspaper releases and information articles. Some of the headlines to publicity stories read, "Campaign for Good Breakfasts Planned," "Medical Dental Groups Endorse Good Breakfasts," "Good Breakfast Week Promoted." Examples of informational articles were "It's Breakfast Time! Be Sure Yours Is Good," and "Cereal Is Suggested for Breakfast."

In Wheeling, W. Va., six radio programs were used in the breakfast campaign.

Children in schools can be reached by posters in school lunchrooms and by teaching what good nutrition is through food selection in school lunches. Preparation of a good breakfast can be included in home economics classes. Information on nutrition may be included in biology, physical education, and other studies.

West Virginia suggested the following classroom activities, adaptable in 4-H Clubs, to promote a good breakfast:

Have members arrange exhibits of model breakfasts.

Have members organize Good Breakfast Clubs in order to serve a good breakfast.

Discuss what other people eat for breakfast in various parts of the world.

Learn more about nutrition as related to "Start the Day the Good Breakfast Way."

The use of puppets and dramatization may help.

In many States 4-H Clubs have already had a project on breakfast. Local leaders have had demonstrations before home demonstration clubs on preparing egg dishes, cereals, and breads for breakfast, so mothers could work more easily with the children. Discussions have been held in connection with various group meetings on problems involved in getting children to eat breakfast, such as getting them up early enough to eat and still catch the school bus, and how to make the meal attractive and pleasant.

Lectures could be given on the subject by nutrition specialists, pediatricians, and dietitians. Movies, too, are a useful method for interesting groups. For example, the following films have been used in connection with a breakfast program: Husky and Skinny, National Dairy Council; For Health and Happiness, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.; Proof of the Pudding,--Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., New York; slidefilms such as What Shall We Have to Eat? National Dairy Council. All these are excellent aids in connection with discussion meetings.

Feeding demonstrations using live animals are an excellent means of interesting children in nutrition. Comparing white rats fed on a good diet and a poor diet is a convincing way of saying the food you eat affects your health. Such feeding demonstrations are often carried out in schoolrooms or in offices of home demonstration agents. In Mississippi a county home demonstration agent carried out a very successful demonstration in the window of a local store.<sup>3</sup> Not only the townspeople were interested but truck drivers went miles out of their way to "see how the rats were doing."

Since the survey in community X showed that more milk was needed in diets, animal experiments could be slanted toward the importance of milk. The county agent could stress the importance of food to the boy in relation to all poultry and animal projects carried out in his county. Perhaps he could suggest that the boy check his own diet in somewhat the same way he does for the calf he is feeding.

#### What else do we need to consider?

In relating our methods to our material we take into consideration that some of the practices we teach are simple while others are complex. Where the practice is simple or interest needs arousing, the news story, radio broadcast, or circular letter is effective. A breakfast pattern, the importance of a good breakfast, or news of some group that has an active breakfast program, are examples of material that may be used.

Manual skills may best be taught through method demonstration and television. We can show the best way to cook eggs or make a quick bread for breakfast. Changing attitudes involves discussion meetings. Realizing the importance of a good breakfast for teen-agers means involving teen-agers in the discussion. Skits and role playing are often effective in changing attitudes. Talks and lectures are important to give facts--for example, the number of children not having enough milk or vitamin C in their breakfast.

When mothers or children want to ask questions they can't find answers for, home visits or office calls are best. Group meetings are effective in bringing the problems before larger numbers of people. We can tell the parent-teacher associations and the home demonstration clubs that we are launching a project so that every child will have a good breakfast and ask their support if they feel it is worthwhile.

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<sup>3</sup> Extension Service Review, June 1951, p. 93.

Bulletins and other publications can be given out in connection with meetings, demonstrations, and radio and television shows. Exhibits may be arranged for in store windows, schools, fairs, and other public places.

At intervals during the program, progress should be evaluated to be sure the methods selected are getting the desired results. If they aren't, they should be improved or discarded for other methods.

No hard and fast rules exist for selecting the best method for any given subject. There is no substitute for judgment. We know that repetition is important to learning and that a person is more likely to adopt a practice about which he has been reached a number of times in a number of different ways.

#### A weight-control project<sup>4</sup>

Another example of selecting methods for the job is given in a weight-control project.

The film on Weight Reduction Through Diet was shown to the Home Economics Extension Club's Council in Ellensburg, Wash., to arouse interest. The women were so enthusiastic they suggested including weight control in the county program.

At the next yearly planning meeting the Special Diet Club was the first item chosen.

Letters were sent to home demonstration clubs for women to sign up for the group. Radio and press were used to stimulate interest.

#### I. "Kickoff" meeting

A meeting was held in January with 25 women attending. Ages ranged from 22 to 70 years. No one was admitted after this first meeting.

##### A. The program included the following:

1. The film Weight Reduction Through Diet was shown again with the local dairy council representative present.
2. Photographs of women were taken; women's height and weight recorded. (Scales were lent by the health department)
3. Graphs were started for each woman to show her gain or loss in weight.
4. Members were cautioned that, to remain in the club, they must--
  - a. Feel they were overweight.
  - b. Have a desire to lose weight.
  - c. Have medical approval (very important).
  - d. Understand the importance of diet.
  - e. Believe they could reduce and maintain normal weight.
  - f. Have time to attend 1-hour weekly meetings for 18 weeks.

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<sup>4</sup> Evelyn Rapp, home demonstration agent, Kittitas County, Ellensburg, Wash. Colorado Workshop, 1953.

5. For 2 weeks before starting their diet, women were instructed to eat as they were accustomed. During this time they were to record in notebooks all foods and liquids put in their mouth.
6. The women determined their ideal weight, according to Metropolitan Life Insurance tables found in Eating Is for Everybody by the National Dairy Council. (The women later talked with their family physicians about the amount to lose and obtained approval.)

## II. Program for first 3 weeks

- A. Members discussed menus; used food models to show weight-control meal patterns.
- B. Each time the women came to meetings, weights were taken and recorded on individual graphs. The entire group record was put on a blackboard and changes recorded each week.
- C. Cards were sent to women about meetings addressed "Dear FLC (Fat Ladies' Club) Member."
- D. Women were shown how to count calories, using the booklet Eating Is for Everybody. (They used measuring cups instead of scales for estimating calories of portions.)

## III. Other interesting club programs

- A. District health officer talked on The Hazards of Overweight.
- B. Beautician talked on hand care, facial care, and hair styling.
- C. Pattern representative talked about foundation garments.
- D. Film Losing To Win, Metropolitan Life Insurance, was shown.
- E. Agent demonstrated preparation of raw food platter (leader training meeting.)
- F. Posture at Work was featured subject at one meeting.
- G. Final meeting after 4-month period was a luncheon consisting of raw vegetable platter, cottage cheese, milk, and coffee.

## IV. Ways in which interest was maintained

- A. Home agent, who was overweight, joined club. Her interest and enthusiasm in the experiment was contagious.
- B. Office secretaries' enthusiasm about weight losses encouraged the women.
- C. Cooperation of men agents, who kept their own graph charts over their desks, helped to keep up morale.
- D. Progress of Special Diet Club was told in newspapers and by radio.
- E. County dairy association donated 1 pound of cottage cheese to all women who lost 2 pounds in a specified week.
- F. Before-and-after pictures were taken to show weight losses.
- G. Several devices were used:
  1. Admission cards.
  2. Graph of weight reduction.
  3. Blackboard rating chart.
  4. Notebook records of all food eaten daily (half the battle).

5. Thermometer showing weight losses or gains.
  6. Models for grooming demonstrations chosen according to ratings on blackboard.
- H. Leader group provided a good atmosphere for discussion and had lots of patience.

### Method Demonstration

Demonstration is one of the oldest and most effective forms of visual education. It makes at least two impressions--one on the sense of vision and the other on the hearing.

Before you can give a successful demonstration you must know your group and its needs. You must know the main point you want to teach and your reason for teaching it to this group. If you are training leaders, think how the main point can be adapted to the group's local conditions. Find out whether the material is available locally. Ask yourself whether a leader can repeat this demonstration effectively? Then you can make your plans accordingly.

Strive for perfection when you give a demonstration. Of course, no one is perfect, but aim at it anyway. Know your equipment, have it checked, and be sure it is as nearly ideal as possible. Be familiar with all utensils and appliances to be used in the demonstration so that you can use them with ease. The less you have to worry about, the better.

Use familiar, tested recipes so you can be sure of them. Use recipes that are in proper order. Use notes and recipes openly; don't try to remember the ingredients. If you do, you are likely to forget something and spoil your finished product.

Be sure of yourself. Be able to talk and work at the same time. If you can't do this with ease, practice at home. When you stop talking in a demonstration, the audience starts to talk.

Be quick. No one wants to watch a slow demonstration. Be relaxed, and your audience will also be at ease. Always be patient. You will be asked some questions that seem silly to you, but be sure to answer them willingly and try to keep the group from laughing at the person asking the question so that she will not be embarrassed.

Always repeat a question so everyone hears it. Be sincere and tactful. Suggest--do not dictate. In making pie crust, for example, tell the audience that there are many ways to make piecrust. If members have not been getting good results, they might like to try your way. Then explain why.

Make the demonstration your own personal one. Always put something of yourself into it.

Be friendly in your actions and appearance. Act friendly, be cheerful; laugh with your audience. Include the group in your demonstration. Ask them if

you've forgotten anything, or ask them to help you count. When you've handed out recipe sheets, indicate the recipe you're using, so that they all find it at one time and do not have to look while you are talking.

There are two schools of thought regarding clothes: One favors a white uniform, which is excellent for a demonstration in which you want to look professional; the other favors a light-colored, washable dress or a dress that the housewife would wear in her own kitchen. A dress seems to promote a more friendly attitude. Don't wear a lot of jewelry.

Tell personal stories that illustrate the point you are making.

You must like your work. If you like what you're doing, the group will enjoy watching you. Of course there is always some tension, but if the demonstration is well planned and sufficient time is allowed for preparation, there should be nothing to worry about.

Be able to "take it." Demonstrations are hard, and unusual situations do arise. Children may run around the tables; the electricity goes off. Don't let these situations bother you. If possible, have someone else to take care of them.

### Planning the demonstration

To give a smooth demonstration you must have a plan and follow it. First, decide on a subject that is important and on the people who are to see the demonstration. Next, plan the demonstration. The following outline may be helpful:

#### 1. Introduction.

The introduction or first part of the demonstration must attract attention. The listeners should be made to feel that the subject is important, worthwhile, practical, and valuable. Make the introduction short.

#### 2. Main part of the demonstration.

Start working; then build in explanation. Make the explanation fit the action. For each step, tell what is being done, how it is being done, why this method is being used, and perhaps something about the material or equipment used.

If you write your demonstration, talking it will help you to remember the material. Be sure to use your own words. Do not memorize the talk. Material memorized rarely sounds convincing.

Arrange the demonstration so that processes follow one another in logical order.

All steps must be demonstrated. If part of the demonstration has been done ahead of time, explain what happened. If a demonstration shows the making of a product, be sure to show the finished product.

### 3. Conclusion.

The conclusion is a summary of important points. The demonstration table is cleared except for the finished product. Display the product in an attractive manner. A good-looking tray or cloth helps. If a food is prepared, it is well to serve samples of it and also to pass out the recipes. If you serve samples be prepared to serve the food attractively.

### Selecting the recipes you want to use

When you have selected your recipes, test them and taste the results. Some foods look good but don't taste good. Be sure to specify such things as the size of casserole or pie plate.

After you have made out your recipe sheet, make a procedure sheet. On this, list the foods in the order in which you are going to demonstrate them, starting with the ones that cook the longest. Then, on the procedure sheet, after each item to be demonstrated, write exactly what is to be done ahead of time, the utensils that will be needed, the mixer if one is necessary, the range features to be used, the heat, and the time involved.

Trays of materials for use in preparing different recipes should be ready in proper sequence. A list of the equipment and supplies, written or typed on cards for each tray, will facilitate setting up the demonstration. Project leaders may use these cards to help set up the trays. Plan to put on each tray as many of the things used in demonstrating that particular recipe as possible, and in the order in which they are to be used. Wrapped materials should be easy to open.

This planning may seem like a lot of work, but it makes the demonstration easier for you and results in a smoother presentation. If you ever have to repeat the demonstration, it will be much simpler to refer to your plan than to start again from scratch and you may use the tray cards over again.

When planning the demonstration, make out a market order listing the food you need to order and the food you have on hand.

### Giving the demonstration

Be sure that the audience can see and hear you. When you are giving a demonstration the voice should be pitched low and be pleasingly modulated. A direct conversational tone is usually effective, and the voice should be heard by all in the audience. Talk to the audience. Try never to turn your back on the audience but, if this is necessary, don't talk while you are doing it. Keep your voice from dropping at the end of a sentence, because that practice can prove annoying. Correlate your action with your talk. Plan so the longer explanations are given during action that takes more time.

Have an intermission if the demonstration lasts more than three-quarters of an hour. Make the demonstration look easy, so that the group will want to go home and try what you've done. They won't be interested if the demonstration appears hard. Make it look like fun and really make it fun. Keep your worktable clean and neat. Have extra utensils, such as extra measuring cups and spoons, in the drawer; a damp cloth and paper towels on the table.

Measure some of the ingredients ahead of time and explain that you did this because it would take too long to measure every cup of sugar in front of the audience. Waxed-paper sandwich bags, paper cups, or waxed paper may be used for holding the measured dry ingredients. This saves weight and space on the tray. Show every step of the recipe, or explain if it is necessary to do it, in advance. If you are making something "tricky," then make at least one sample in front of the audience. Have some things made ahead of time if they must cool.

Use charts, slides, and movies to aid in the demonstration. If possible, give small charts to take home.

Bring the demonstration to a close by summarizing and stating its purpose. Display the food and ask if there are any questions. Serve the food.

Keep an open mind. Go to other demonstrations. You might see something you want to use (or you might find something you don't want to use). Listen to the suggestions from the audience. (Often they have some good ideas.)

If you are training leaders to carry out the demonstration in their own clubs it is desirable for them actually to carry out any difficult or involved step. But it is very important that sufficient time be given them for questions. They should plan exactly how they expect to carry out the demonstration before their club.

It may be well to allow approximately one-third of the time for discussion and one-third for the leaders to plan the way they will give their follow-up demonstration.

### References

Demonstration Technique. M. G. Allgood. 141 pp., illus. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York 1947.

How To Give a Food Demonstration. Dept. Home Econ. Serv., Kellogg Co., Battle Creek, Mich.

### Suggested list of equipment for food demonstrations

1. Double broiler, steel or aluminum.
2. Nest of mixing bowls, clear glass--may mix with plastic.
3. Sifter, 5 cup.
4. Strainer.

5. Muffin tin, one piece, aluminum.
6. Custard cups, 6 or more.
7. Cake pan, 2 rounds or 2 squares (8 or 9 inches by 2 inches.)
8. Standard loaf pan for bread.
9. Piepans, tin, aluminum, or glass.
10. 1 glass measuring cup, 1 metal measuring cup.
11. 1 quart measuring cup.
12. 1 set aluminum measuring cups, nested.
13. 2 sets measuring spoons.
14. 2 cookie sheets or 2 biscuit tins.
15. 3 cake coolers.
16. Eggbeater, rotary.
17. Wooden spoon with shallow bowl, 2 or 3, hard wood.
18. Plate scraper.
19. Spatula--2 sizes or more.
20. Can opener, screw type.
21. Bottle opener.
22. Tablespoons.
23. Teaspoons.
24. Forks--assorted.
25. Knives--paring, utility and French or chef's, butcher.
26. Vegetable peeler (floating blade).
27. Board--cutting and pastry.
28. Pastry blender.
29. Saucepans--1- to 2-quart sizes.
30. Trays of metal or other lightweight material.
31. Oven thermometer and dairy thermometer.
32. Timer.
33. Rolling pin--pastry cloth--stockinet.
34. Shredder.
35. Skillet with tight-fitting lid.
36. Plastic containers with heavy plastic.
37. Cover for table--heavy plastic.
38. Kitchen shears.
39. Biscuit and cookie cutters.
40. Dishcloths and plastic sponges.
41. Dish towels.
42. Scouring pad.
43. Soap.

### The Television Food Demonstration

#### A. Before planning your television food program

1. Find out the kind of audience you'll have--men, women, or children. This will undoubtedly depend on the time of day. If it is noon, or early afternoon, plan for women; late afternoon and early evening, plan to include children; evening, plan for men and women.

2. Get to know your cameraman and director. They are the go-betweens for you and your audience and can help you give interesting twists to your presentation.
3. Familiarize yourself with your television kitchen and working area. This makes it easier to plan your program accurately.
4. Check with the director on the type of rehearsal used. If it is "live," plan to duplicate the demonstration, because this type of rehearsal means performing as though you were actually on the air. Check also on rehearsal time, and give yourself plenty of time to get set up for rehearsal.
5. Check on available equipment. Make lists of necessary additions. You may want to dress up your kitchen a little to make it "homey" and give it a "lived in" look. This adds interest and gives a finished appearance to your program.
6. Avoid cluttering the background, as clutter is confusing and detracts from the demonstration.
7. Make sure you know exactly how long you will be participating, and what the station breaks or pauses are.
8. If possible, have all white kitchen appliances sprayed a pale gray or pale blue. Spray liquid wax on chrome appliances to avoid glare.
9. Know how soon before the program you are permitted on the set. This is important when you are planning how you want to "get set up."
10. Estimate the approximate size of your audience so you can plan for mail response, and have enough recipes to meet requests. Give your mail a personal touch, even though recipes may be mimeographed.

B. In planning your television program

1. Make it simple, the nutrition points clear. Strive for recipes with few steps.
2. Select one, if possible, where you can show the finished product at both the beginning and end of the program.
3. Plan casseroles, quick desserts, and short cuts for the work-a-day world.
4. Give "special-day" programs far enough in advance so that requests for recipes can be received and recipes mailed in plenty of time for use.
5. Plan to use your full period but, if it has to be cut, leave out an idea whose omission will not disrupt the entire program. You should always have an extra idea, too, in case you have more time than expected.

6. Try to plan a complete meal; at least plan to show related foods together, such as entree, salad, and dessert; or dessert and beverage.
7. Place less food on a plate than normally would be served. The camera makes a portion appear more generous. This applies also to garnishes, so go sparingly.
8. Strive for color and texture contrast but avoid sharp contrast, as light objects look lighter when placed next to extremely dark objects, and dark objects look darker.
9. Have enough props to give a finished look to your recipe. They are important. Try to vary your props to avoid monotony for your audience. Avoid too "busy" a pattern.
10. Do all the obvious jobs before the program--chopping food, whipping cream, opening cans, loosening bottle caps, having spices ready-measured and meat browned. Then be sure to mention that this has been done and give the measurements of food. Keep the program moving fast.
11. In planning your program, avoid noise as much as possible. Try not to use the following equipment: Electric mixers, rotary beaters, minute minders, singing teakettles, paper toweling, waxed paper, and metal spoons. If you have to use mixers, beaters, or minders, place them on two or three thicknesses of dish toweling and use the lowest speed on an electric mixer. Whenever possible: Loosen springs on oven doors, oil rollers on kitchen drawers, use rubber spatulas, wire whips instead of rotary beaters, wooden spoons instead of metal spoons, damp cloth instead of paper toweling, and transparent plastic sheets instead of waxed paper.
12. Work in household hints whenever you can, so the audience learns at least one new thing.
13. Use helpful gadgets and point out their value for shortening housework.
14. Glass utensils are excellent because the audience can see the food better. Shallow or wide-mouthed bowls are best for camera shots.
15. Make sure that the oven holds all the food you want to place in it, and place the food in the oven so you can take it out in proper sequence.
16. The use of a tray for each recipe makes for a neater, faster-moving program. Place the trays in sequence for use. When using a tray during the program, place it on the table in the best position for viewers to see what you are doing.
17. Use custard or paper cups for small quantities of ingredients. They are neater and easier to handle.
18. If you are a guest, send your program outline to the hostess far enough in advance to give her an opportunity to check the equipment, confer with

the director and cameraman, and supply herself with information. She can then make her own introduction to, and summary of, your program or, if she is also participating, can tie the program together.

19. If you are planning a weekly or daily program, do so far in advance. Some demonstrators plan as much as 6 weeks ahead. Requests for lettering and artwork should be made well in advance.

20. Plan your program so you can work in as small an area as possible.

21. Consider your personal appearance:

a. Choose simple dresses, and avoid too low a neckline. Usually, soft pastels are the best colors. Anything white reflects light into the camera, while black and dark colors create "halos"--white lines around dark objects. Bold plaids, medium or large checks, flowered or print dresses, or fussy dresses are unsuitable.

b. Wear little, if any, jewelry--especially any that may reflect glare in the camera.

c. Maintain immaculate nails. Medium to light polish is good because it accentuates contrast in the hands. Avoid the lustrous type of polish because it might cause glare.

d. Special makeup is usually not necessary, so use your accustomed rouge, lipstick, and powder. A lipstick of a light, clear color is generally better than one of a dark blue-red shade--because the darker and deeper the red, the more chance it will televise black.

#### C. During television rehearsal

1. Make notes of any changes in the program.

2. Become fully acquainted with the camera. This will help insure ease and confidence during the program.

3. Be sure you understand the sign language of the floor director so you can regulate your timing.

4. Check any shots about which there may be some doubt as to setting and props.

#### D. Just before the show

1. Check and recheck trays.

2. Check all appliances to make sure that they are operating properly. This should be done every time you perform.

3. Assemble extra equipment for emergency.

4. Allow ample time for makeup.

5. If another program is going on in the studio just before you, be as quiet as possible and above all be careful where you walk; you might step before a "live" camera.

6. Get to the studio early enough to give yourself plenty of time to set up your equipment and do all the other last-minute jobs.

#### E. During the program

1. Be enthusiastic about your subject. Cameras are sensitive and convey attitudes very well.

2. Avoid overtalking. Plan to talk less than when giving your regular platform demonstrations--and talk slowly. Fast talk on television confuses the audience and hampers learning. Use short sentences.

3. Remember that accidents happen. If one does, consider it a joke and keep going. Chances are it will be funny, anyway. If not, explain what happened and continue.

4. Be yourself. Extension television is not a show window for glamour but for useful practical information.

5. Try to move slowly and deliberately. Don't make any quick or unannounced movements, and give the director a verbal cue before changing position. Use few, if any, gestures.

6. Remember to operate within as small a space as possible, and have your materials as close as you can without making them appear jumbled.

7. Never eat on your own program, but you can offer tastes to any guests.

8. Gear conversation to one person or a small group. In this way you will seem to be visiting especially with everyone listening. This gives a personal touch. Talk mostly into the camera while you conduct the demonstration.

9. Ask for occasional closeups on face. The audience likes to see who you are.

10. Speak with animation, friendliness, and sincerity. One purpose of the demonstration is to inspire women to take pride in their food and nutrition work.

11. When showing a completed product, hold the subject still long enough--at least 30 seconds--to permit a good look.

12. Give the ingredients and method of a recipe as you prepare it; repeat the recipe after you have finished it. If possible, show a card in closeup, listing ingredients.

13. Work toward the camera. Tip bowls toward the camera. Be careful that your hands or fingers do not hide the object you want to show. Practice keeping your hands out of the way. Be graceful.

14. Keep your head up so that the overhead "mike" has a better pickup.

15. Talk to the live camera, and look at it when you are speaking or showing something to the viewer. When a closeup camera is on your subject of preparation, talk into the opposite one--the one with red lights on--so when the director switches cameras you don't have to change your face direction.

16. When not performing, be very quiet, noise not only distracts other performers, but sensitive mikes magnify all noises.

17. Check on arrangements for time signals with the floor director.

#### F. After the program

1. Feed the stage crew. To let the crew share the food you have prepared on your show, it is helpful to have paper cups and plates set up in advance.

2. Be sure your working area is spotless when you leave.

3. If you are a guest, wait until the program is all over before packing up your things; make arrangements before leaving the station to have audience requests for any recipes or other material you offer, handled promptly.

#### References

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5. Cuff Notes on TV. Jessie McQueen. American Gas Assoc., 420 Lexington Avenue, New York 17. n. d.

6. Television for You. Joe D. Tonkin and Alice Skelsey. U. S. Dept. Agr., Fed. Ext. Serv., Washington 25, D. C. 1953.
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### Result Demonstration

A result demonstration is conducted by a homemaker or 4-H Club member to show the advantages of a recommended practice. It involves a substantial period of timely records and results of comparison. It is designed to teach others in addition to the person conducting the demonstration.

Result demonstrations must be well planned and carried on systematically to prove that the recommended practice is definitely superior to the one it replaces. Thus a result demonstration must be planned and not found.

Demonstration results are used to help rural people solve some of their most important immediate problems. The result demonstrator learns by following the recommended practice, observing and keeping a record of results. He becomes his own teacher as well as the teacher of his neighbor.

Result demonstrations in foods and nutrition can be set up on the basis of the home food supply. In Texas ventilated pantry demonstrations showed the proper storage of the canned and stored food. Several States have home food supply demonstrations in which they display both their canned and frozen food with the plan.

Kitchens which are conveniently arranged or planned may also be subjects for a result demonstration.

Some States have set up result demonstrations on weight control.

### Judging with score cards and check sheets

Some extension workers place a great deal of emphasis on keeping the standards at a given level. Each person's standards are different from those of other persons. Standards are based on such factors as past experience, training, and cultural and economic levels. When it comes to judging, usually it is necessary to set up arbitrary standards so exhibits can be graded.

In 4-H projects it is well to remember that the goal is developing boys and girls, and that they are more important than the product they are making. In view of this it is sometimes necessary to modify standards to meet situations brought about by economic, social, and cultural levels. For example, children from isolated sections may have very limited equipment, training, and experience, which will be reflected in their product.

I. What are the purposes of standards?

- A. To know what is a good product.
- B. To have foods look good, taste good, and be good for you.
- C. To stimulate accomplishment by people.

## II. Generalizations concerning standards.

- A. Standards are important as objectives to strive for.
- B. Standards must be flexible--according to people's ability to achieve.
- C. People should set their own standards.
- D. There is no substitute for judgment.

## III. When does one use score cards--when check sheets?

- A. Check sheets are--
  - 1. Easier and quicker than score cards.
  - 2. Can be weighted by putting several items under a point.
  - 3. Better for 4-H youngsters, who can't make fine distinctions.
- B. Check sheets may be given a score--
  - 1. To give a numerical score to a check sheet, results such as good (3), medium (2), poor (1) may be assigned numerical values; then these may be added to give a total score. But do not assign absolute values, as is implied by "87 points."
- C. Score cards.
  - 1. Professional graders use score cards.
  - 2. Results are based on experience, highly developed senses, and other factors.

### Teaching by Radio

Radio is an effective way to spread nutrition information and increase interest in it. Radio reaches more people and is faster than any other method. It can save you travel, extend your services over a broader field, introduce new ideas to your locality, distribute instructive literature for you, and bring larger attendance at your nutrition meetings and demonstrations.

### How to get results with radio

To make your radio work easier and more effective:

- 1. Have in mind the listener's point of view. Study your potential audience. Present material from its angle. Translate information into answers to listeners' food problems.
- 2. Limit your subject. Don't try to tell everything. Concentrate on getting over a few points rather than many details. Tell the audience where they can learn more on the subject.
- 3. Follow an outline. Generally, tell your listeners what you're going to tell them, tell them, then tell them what you've told them. This gives you a beginning, middle, and ending--or introduction, body, and conclusion.
- 4. Be accurate. Extension has a reputation for being correct. Be sure your information is reliable, timely, and practical.

5. Speak simply. Use words everyone can understand. Avoid long phrases and sentences. Use active rather than passive voice.
6. Be natural. Be yourself. Your audience expects to hear from their nutrition specialist--not an entertainer. Listeners want you to tell them what's important in nutrition. Provide information that will help them, and you can forget technique.
7. Be informal. Be chatty and conversational. Use contractions. Say "it's," "they've," "don't," and so forth. Sound as if you're talking--not reading.
8. Be sincere. Believe in your subject. Think about what you're going to say, and MEAN it.
9. Be warm and friendly. In nearly every script there are several places where you can smile; your smile can be reflected in your voice.
10. Personalize your broadcast. Appear to be talking only to one person. Picture yourself in your listener's living room, having a pleasant visit.
11. Use names when appropriate. Names can be a valuable stock in trade in your nutrition broadcasting. Some of Extension's most successful women broadcasters interpret the nutrition program in their States and counties in terms of the people who carry out the practices. The best recommendation for a good nutrition method is the name of a local person who uses it successfully.
12. Six "busy be's" of nutrition broadcasting are: Be yourself. Be at ease--just talk to folks. Be down-to earth, chatty, and conversational. Be enthusiastic and friendly. Be accurate. Be wary of having too many points.

#### Ways of giving radio broadcasts

1. A straight talk is suitable for short periods, but considerable skill is required to make it interesting and listenable.
2. Dialog usually holds interest longer than does a straight talk. The interview is harder to prepare if well done, but results are generally better--particularly if your period is more than several minutes long.
3. Spot announcements are valuable, especially for nutrition information that you want to give immediately. Most stations will use spot announcements of this kind as a public service.
4. Guest appearances--or sharing someone else's program--are helpful. The guest is usually asked to talk on a specific subject. Such participation builds cooperation with other people who reach your audience, too.

5. Dramatic presentations are difficult. They need skillful writing to be good, and are usually best handled by professionals or those with considerable uninterrupted time to struggle for best results.

6. Script service--providing nutrition information for use on established programs--has much merit. This may be in the form of occasional individual radio news items or a regular nutrition script service. The material is presented by announcers or other station people and is written specifically for them.

7. Background information is not written in form for radio broadcast, but helps radio people by providing them with facts on a particular subject. Fact sheets are an example.

8. Leaflets provide a means of getting information materials to listeners. Radio people can be provided with nutrition leaflets to offer on their programs. Requests can be filled by the station or the Extension office.

### References

Making Radio Work for You. A handbook for extension agents. U. S. Dept. Agr. Agr. Handbook 42. August 1952.

Six Easy Steps to Good Extension Radio. Leaflet. U. S. Dept. Agr. Fed. Ext. Serv. Washington 25, D. C.

Plain Cues for Better Interviews. Leaflet. U. S. Dept. Agr. Fed. Ext. Serv. Washington 25, D. C.

### Group Discussions

Methods are of value only in terms of their effectiveness for the job to be done. There are no set rules. Any available technique should be "shaken well before using."

Discussion methods that offer participation for each person present at a meeting and promote motivation are best adapted to extension teaching. The particular method used must be adapted to the problem and to the group.

### Tips for leading and participating in a discussion.

#### 1. Tips for the discussion leader:

The leader's aim is to get members of the group to participate in the discussion without doing too much talking himself.

a. Prepare for the meeting in advance. Study the subject, and think through the problems or questions that might be discussed.

b. Make physical arrangements, or see that someone else does, before the meeting starts. This involves such things as arranging chairs and tables and checking lights and ventilation.

c. Start and close the meeting on time.

d. Put the group at ease. See that group members at least know one another's names. Have a friendly courteous attitude.

e. Discuss the problem of the meeting with the group members. Get their ideas about the issues involved and have them to help decide on the order in which the issues should be discussed. The group should also decide what they want to accomplish from the discussion.

f. Arouse interest. A challenging statement often helps to do this. Use questions to bring out different points of view. Keep the discussion on a positive plane and relate the topic to the experiences and interests of the group.

g. Encourage everyone to take part in the discussion. Through discussion, the members help themselves to think more clearly. Interrupt them as little as possible when the discussion is progressing satisfactorily. Do not "lecture" or express your own opinions. The leader's job is not to answer questions, but to refer them to the group or the consultant for consideration.

h. Don't hurry people. Give them time to think.

i. Keep the discussion objective. Do not let it get personal.

j. Keep the discussion to the point. If members of the group wander from the point under discussion, bring them back by saying, "Perhaps we could discuss that at a later date," or "Could you explain how the point you just made is related to the subject under discussion?"

k. Include as many people as possible without calling on anyone specifically.

l. Summarize frequently, or encourage group members to do so. Clarify points as the discussion moves along. Use the recorder's notes to help you summarize. The final summary should include only the conclusions reached by the group.

## 2. Tips for the consultant:

Frequently the consultant is asked to be the leader; but when he acts as leader, he is unable to function as a true consultant.

a. Know the subject matter to be discussed. A consultant may be either a specialist or a person who has looked up material for the subject under discussion.

b. Help individual members with problems by suggesting reference materials.

c. Understand the job of the chairman and the recorder, and help them with their part in the discussion.

d. Raise questions for the group to consider.

e. Do not monopolize the discussion or argue strongly for any particular idea.

f. Help the chairman and the recorder to prepare the written summary if one is planned.

### 3. Tips for the recorder:

The recorder is primarily responsible for getting down the main points that group thinking produces. This includes the major issues, with pros and cons indicated, the major agreements reached by the group, the decisions made, and the action agreed upon. The recorder's notes should be a summary of the discussion that has taken place, not minutes of the meeting. The most important work of the recorder is to help the group keep track of what it has done, furnish a check on where it is, and indicate where it is going. The report is a group report. It summarizes progress. It often helps to have the recorder use a blackboard to keep the facts before the group and to keep the discussion advancing.

### 4. Tips for members of discussion groups:

a. Come prepared to take part in the discussion. Your attitude may either help your neighbor to participate or cause him to keep silent.

b. Speak your mind freely. The discussion meeting is yours. It provides you with an opportunity to say what you think.

c. Listen thoughtfully to others. Try to understand the other person's point of view and grasp what experience and thinking it rests upon.

d. Keep to the subject. Every member has a responsibility for keeping the group on the subject of discussion.

e. When you disagree, do so in a friendly way. Friendly disagreement is good for discussion, but keep your remarks on a constructive plane. Disagree in a courteous and good-humored way.

f. Respect the person who is talking. Give him a chance to finish what he is saying before you start. Don't interrupt.

g. Give others a chance to talk. Don't monopolize the discussion. Don't speak for more than a minute or so at a time.

- h. Help the leader by asking questions that will draw others out if the discussion lags.
- i. Keep your seat when talking. Informality is the rule. A discussion meeting is not the place for speeches.
- j. Follow the discussion to its conclusion. Every member has a responsibility to take some action on the final decisions reached in group discussion.

### Types of discussion

1. Strauss and Strauss<sup>5</sup> summarize a method of discussion in which the responsibility for leading the discussion is shared by four members:

- a. The leader who guides discussion, summarizes or clarifies a point, or helps a shy member to get his bearing.
- b. A person who writes out highlights of the discussion on the blackboard. He may ask for clarification of a statement.
- c. An observer, who keeps records but takes no part in the discussion. He makes notes of how the discussion progresses, and possibly who participates and how often.
- d. A recorder, who keeps records and reports on the highlights, trends of discussion, and other important information. He summarizes the discussion for the group.

This type of discussion can be varied to suit the circumstances. It is not always necessary to have an observer. This is most useful when the method is first introduced or if some person or persons are monopolizing the discussion time.

If a record is kept on the blackboard it is not always necessary to use a recorder as well. Keeping the record on the blackboard helps keep the discussion from wandering, and the leader may be able to show that same point has already been covered.

This type of discussion is suitable for small groups--preferably for not more than 20 in a group. It encourages each person to participate. The methods used may help avoid domination by one person. The technique of conducting this type of discussion may be adapted to specific groups, or it may be introduced to a group piecemeal.

### 2. Role playing.

Role playing is a discussion technique that attempts to get maximum participation of a group by acting out an example of some problem under discus-

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<sup>5</sup> See reference list at end of this section.

sion. It is not a substitute for discussion but a method of promoting discussion.

It is valuable in stimulating an interest in a situation because the members of the group identify themselves by word and emotion with the character being played. By being "someone else" a person can talk about himself or speak his mind in an indirect way. He is also free to act emotionally as if in a real life situation. The members of the group identify themselves with these emotions just as they do with the word spoken. As the actors or the group take part in the drama, they are able to remember more about the situation than when just talking about it.

To set up role playing in a group, first describe the situation to the entire group, then choose as many persons for the role playing as there are characters in your situations. Give the participants a chance to get together to decide how to start the play and what points to emphasize. At the time the players are doing this, the rest of the group are assigned to watch one player. The critical observation of the group helps to bring about greater learning. Role playing should be continued long enough to enable members to understand the points that will help in reaching the goal. After the playing has gone on long enough to do this, possibly 10 minutes, discuss with the group what were the good and poor points made. The participation of the audience-observers constitutes the real essence of the role playing as a discussion technique.

This method may be used to define or diagnose a problem; sometimes it can be used to make a plan of action.

### 3. Group dramatics.

This is a discussion technique best fitted for use in small groups. The discussion usually follows a scene enacted by the group to stimulate thinking of the group for action. Each person in the group acts out an assigned character.

Group dramatics differs from role playing in that several persons may take the part of the same character. Instead of having only one character for each speaking part, each member of the audience identifies himself with one of the characters.

This might be used as a problem-solving device to present subject-matter material, as in presenting a specific problem to be discussed.

### 4. Group discussion--decision.

This is one of the newer methods of group discussion in that it motivates the group to reach a decision. Each participant is responsible for helping to reach and carry out each goal.

Group discussion leading to decision is good because average group judgment is usually better than individual judgment. A group is more likely to accept a good suggestion than reject it. At least four steps are necessary:

- (1) Group discussion--the leader stimulates, gives information, but keeps in the background.
- (2) Group decision--from discussion, the group agrees on a definite goal.
- (3) Group commitment--the group acts to carry out definite action to put into specific goals agreed upon by the group.
- (4) Group action--each individual desiring status within the group carries out the proposed action.

This method may be used with groups numbering less than 30. It may be used in program planning--deciding on food or nutrition projects that are most needed in the county, in group weight-control demonstrations, and in planning countywide activities to promote better nutrition.

#### 5. "Buzz" sessions.

In some situations, a group leader will find useful a procedure known as a "buzz" session, or "conversation huddle." Such sessions are organized as follows:

After stating clearly the question to be discussed, the chairman instructs the members to seat themselves in groups of 5 or 6 each. This can usually be accomplished in a few minutes by suggesting groupings such as having the first three persons on the left end of the first row turn their chairs around, or turn themselves around in their seats, to face the other three persons seated.

After the groups have selected a chairman or spokesman, they discuss a problem for a given time, say 10 or 15 minutes. At the end of that time the group leader calls for the reports of the groups. This method is good for allowing a large number of persons to express themselves. It can be used, for example, to find what a group feels is the most important food problem in a community.

#### 6. Panel discussions.

Another method useful in starting group discussion is the panel. This may be used with either large or small groups.

Panel members should prepare. Though the discussion should not be rehearsed, a preliminary meeting of the moderator and the panel members is helpful. It gives the moderator an opportunity to work out with the panel the procedure to be followed, so that everyone knows in advance what is to be discussed. Without such an explanation, panel members may think that they are expected to give speeches, rather than to take part in an informal conversation. Or they may go to the other extreme and forget the line of argument entirely, with the result that the discussion gets nowhere.

Different points of view are needed. Panel members should be selected carefully some time in advance of the meeting. They should represent as much variety of background and opinion as possible. A sense of humor helps to get ideas across. At the time of selecting the panel members, the moderator should

discuss the topic to be considered with each person, as well as each person's contribution. This helps each panel member better to understand what his contribution is to be.

In a panel discussion the moderator and 4 to 6 selected persons sit around a table in a semicircle facing the audience. After introducing the panel members to the group, the moderator gives a brief statement announcing the problem and presenting a few facts about it. He then leads the panel in an informal conversation of the issues. He summarizes frequently so that the issues can be kept clear.

Members of the audience may take part during the discussion or they may wait until the panel members have presented all their points.

#### 7. Symposium.

This method gives each individual participating an opportunity to make his contribution. Each symposium member reports in turn, making the discussion a more formal type. The leader introduces the group and guides presentation. This method might be used to present nutrition information on a radio program; to get views of different groups; preceding a "buzz" session to bring out ideas for discussion; or as a means of summarizing the thinking of smaller groups formed by dividing a large group into smaller groups.

#### 8. Forum.

This is another of the less formal types of discussion. In it any number may take part. In addition to participation by the group making up the forum, questions and comments from the audience are welcomed.

The leader announces the rules, then enters in only as need arises. The subject may be introduced by one or more brief speeches. Volunteers then take the floor and observe the time limits set up. Speakers follow no set pattern.

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How To Work With Groups. A. & H. Frecher, Woman's Press, New York. 1952.

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A chairman's Guide, H. Husted. Reader's Digest Program Service, Pleasantville, N. Y. 1946.

### Audiovisual Aids

Visual aids are teaching tools that help to increase the effectiveness of teaching. Studies show that through proper use of visual aids, students can learn up to 35 percent more in a given period of time and remember up to 55 percent longer. The combined use of lecture and visual aids is more effective in influencing adoption of better practices than the lecture method only. Visual aids have an even greater importance in informal education than in formal education. Here are some suggestions for the effective use of visual aids:

### References

Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching. Edgar Dale. 546 pp. Dryden Press, New York. 1946.

Preparation and Use of Audio-Visual Aids. Kenneth B. Hass and Harry Q. Packer. 327 pp. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York. 1950.

What Research Shows About Visual Aids. Leaflet 612. U. S. Dept. Agr., Washington 25, D. C. 1949.

Among sources of supply for display materials are:

Special cardboard, background papers, and display materials. Miller Paper Co.,  
80 West Oster Street, New York 12.

Art supplies and papers, including mechanical lettering devices:

Arthur Brown, 2 West 46th Street, New York 18.  
Richtone Co., 1129 Sixth Avenue, New York 18.  
A. Seltzer, 1163 Sixth Avenue, New York 18.  
E. H. & A. C. Friedrichs Co., 40 East 43d Street, New York 17.  
American Handicrafts Co., 12 East 41st Street, New York 17.

Pasteboard cutout letters:

Eagle Supply Co., 327 West 42d Street, New York 18.

Wooden cutout letters:

Manhattan Wood Letter Co., 151 West 18th Street, New York 11.

Plastic letters:

W. L. Stensgaard, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Pegboard:

B. B. Butler Mfg. Co., Inc., 3150 Randolph Street, Dept. HR, Chicago, Ill.  
Write for name of nearest dealer and for leaflet showing uses.

(Note: Write to the Museum of Modern Art, 11 West 53d Street, New York 19, for the latest catalog of circulating exhibitions and a reference list.)

### Blackboard

The blackboard is probably the most generally used visual aid. If properly used, it may be of tremendous value in all kinds of teaching. The following rules for using the blackboard should definitely increase its effectiveness as a visual aid:

1. Don't crowd the blackboard.
2. Make the material simple.
3. Get together everything you need for the blackboard ahead of time.
4. Check lighting. Avoid glare.
5. Use colored chalk for emphasis.
6. Print and draw on a large scale.
7. Keep the blackboard clean.
8. Erase all unrelated materials.
9. Prepare complicated illustrations beforehand.

### Bulletin board

An effectively used bulletin board is much more than a piece of cork or a burlap cloth upon which odds and ends are placed. It may be used to arouse interest and to develop subject matter. To make the bulletin board effective:

1. Use it often.
  2. Use pertinent illustrations.
  3. Arrange pictures in an orderly and interesting manner.
  4. Use color harmony and balance.
  5. Change material frequently.
- (See references under Exhibits, p. 50.)

### Food and food models

Food, raw or prepared, is often more effective than any other visual aid. When it is not practicable to use actual food, food models may be used.

### Photographs and other pictures

Without pictures the world today would not be so meaningful as it is to most of us. Pictures may be used to--

1. Arouse interest.
2. Introduce new subjects.
3. Illustrate specific steps in the job.
4. Review units of subject matter.

To use photographs and other pictures effectively, consider projecting them on a screen by means of an opaque projector.

1. Utilize the countless number of excellent pictures and photographs available.
2. Mount pictures on a suitable background.
3. Take photographs that tell a story and show action.
4. Show only large pictures to a group.
5. Point out important things in a picture.
6. Use pictures with other related teaching aids.
7. Photographs made during field trips will facilitate followup study.

### Motion pictures

A motion picture can present a pictorial story, with or without sound. It can arouse interest and emotion. It can influence attitudes, insights, and relationships. It can promote understanding of new concepts outside the range of one's own experience. It can attract groups.

To increase the effectiveness of motion pictures--

1. Get acquainted with the best films available on specific subjects.
2. Keep a file of information about desirable films.
3. Review films ahead of time in a preview period.
4. Use teaching guides that are designed to accompany film, when they are available and when applicable.
5. Tie in the film content with the lesson to be taught.

6. Prepare the group through introductory discussion.
7. Follow up the film with discussion of the lesson it has taught.

Reference: Teaching With Films. Fern N. Robinson.

### Slides and filmstrips

Slides and filmstrips are still pictures that may be projected for group observation. They can provide for audience participation and give supplementary information. Filmstrips may be cut and mounted for use as slides. This makes them more adaptable.

To increase effectiveness of slides and filmstrips--

1. Use slides to tell one story.
2. Add needed information verbally.
3. Select filmstrips with the same care you would use in selecting motion pictures.
4. You may take your own pictures and make the slides to tell your own story.
5. The pictures should be clear and show the point you are trying to get across.
6. The sequence of events should be logical.
7. Adjust the time each picture is held on the screen. If it is too fast or too slow, the audience loses interest.
8. The narrative should be brief and to the point.
9. Stimulate all members of the group to contribute to the discussion.
10. Help clarify issues in films.

See section on motion pictures, page 47.

Know how to operate the machine you use. Check it before using.

Be sure the picture is focused sharply.

Get all the picture on the screen--not too large or too small.

Be sure the bulb is bright enough and the machine is right for the room in which you plan to show it. For large rooms a 1000-watt bulb is needed.

Use a shadow box for a small group in a light room.

Try to keep the audience directly in front of the screen.

### The flannelgraph

The flannelgraph is another type of inexpensive visual aid that is easy to make and may be used for many purposes, such as to illustrate talks as an aid to demonstration. It works on the principle that some materials have an affinity for each other. Pieces of flannel, felt, duvetyn, sandpaper, flock-tite, and similar materials will stick to a background of flannel without an adhering agent. This is true even when the background is in an upright

position. If scraps of any one of these materials are pasted or rubber-cemented to the backs of photographs, drawings, lettering on medium-weight paper, or illustrations clipped from magazines, they will cling to a large piece of flannel until they are removed.

### Reference

How To Make and Use a Flannelgraph. Gertrude L. Power. 4 pp., illus. U. S. Dept. Agr. Ext. Serv., Washington 25, D. C. 1950.

### Flashcards

Flashcards are small, compact cards approximately 10 to 12 inches square that may be flashed before a group to bring home an idea. They may be used effectively in a large number of situations and with other training aids.

The technique to be employed will depend upon the specific problem or subject that is being presented. Be sure to expose each card so that everyone in the group can see it, and be sure the print is large enough for all to read.

### Charts and graphs

Charts and graphs help to make dry facts more interesting and understandable. There are the flow charts, table charts, process or distribution charts, and slide or "strip-tease" charts.

Graphs are effective tools for making comparisons and contrasts. Those that are involved or difficult to read are of little value. A good graph requires little explanation and tells its story at a glance.

The four types of graphs are the bar, pie or circle, line, and pictorial. Bar and circle graphs are the ones most easily understood. Some facts are best presented by one type of graph and some by others. (See reference, p. 48.) It is well to evaluate the graphs you use in meetings to be sure they are getting your message across. Women do not think in graphic terms as much as men do.

### Posters

A poster is a picture or drawing designed for display to convey a message or idea in one glance. Posters with an emotional appeal are most effective. One that shows a realistic picture will be better understood than one showing a symbolic picture. A good poster size is 22 by 28 inches or 44 by 18 inches. It may utilize charts, graphs, diagrams, maps, pictures, cartoons, or anything that will help to present the facts. Posters may be made or acquired from various sources. Use an easel or other suitable device to display posters so that they may be easily seen.

### Reference

Lettering for Extension Visual Aids. Gertrude L. Power. 12 pp., illus. U. S. Dept. Agr. Ext. Serv. Agr. Handbook 22. Washington 25, D. C. July 1951.

## Flip-flop posters

A series of posters telling a story may be mounted on an easel or suitable device for display. The new poster can be turned as the talk is given.

## Exhibits

The exhibit can arouse interest, reach large numbers of people, and influence them to improve their practices. It should be a means of changing attitudes, interest, or ways of doing things.

The following may be used for setting up different types of exhibits:

1. Contrast and comparison, to help people become fully aware of a bad situation and make them want to do something about it. Example: Malnourished and well-nourished rats.

2. Related series of panels or a booth, to show steps in a process. Example: Steps in preparing food for the freezer.

3. A concealed display to arouse interest. Example: Lighting up slides.

4. Minatures and enlargements. Example: Model kitchens.

To increase the effectiveness of an exhibit--

- (1) Make it bold, dramatic, up to date, correct, and self-explanatory.
- (2) Place it where it is sure to be seen.
- (3) Have a message that can be seen at a glance. The traffic should flow from left to right--because we read that way.
- (4) Use short, simple, but legible labels on the eye level.
- (5) Use color to add interest and attractiveness.
- (6) Have one main idea.
- (7) Use good lighting. Spotlights point up key ideas.
- (8) Asymmetrical balance is more interesting than symmetrical.
- (9) Something moving or alive helps get attention.
- (10) Make it appeal to people who do not read or get needed information otherwise.

## References on Exhibits

How To Start an Exhibit Treasure Chest. Girl Scouts of the U. S. A., New York 17.

How To Yell for Help Effectively. Girl Scouts of the U. S. A., New York 17.

An Exhibit Idea-Book. Cat. No. 19-901. Girl Scouts of the U. S. A., New York 17.

Look at Our Windows. Girl Scouts of the U. S. A., New York 17.

How To Improve Your Exhibit. Countrywomen's League. Leaflet 10, Ser. 17, 1951-52 program series. Curtis Pub. Co., Philadelphia. June 1952.

Planning Your Exhibit. Janet Lane and Beatrice Telleris. Natl. Publicity Council for Health and Welfare Serv., Inc., 130 East 22d Street, New York 1.

The Art of Display. Samual B. Faier. M. S. R. Pubs., Inc., 175 Fifth Avenue, New York 10.

Educational Exhibits--How To Prepare and Use Them. H. W. Gilbertson. U. S. Dept. Agr. Misc. Pub. 634. 1948.

Nutrition Exhibits. Anna dePlanter Bowes, Pa. Dept. Health, Harrisburg.

How To Set Up a Nutrition Exhibit. Lois Long, Pratt Inst., Brooklyn. Reprint from Practical Home Economics, November 1950.

Reprints from Forecast for Home Economists, 6 East 39th Street, New York 16:

How To Arrange an Exhibit or Display. Clara Straight. October 1951.

The Bulletin Board as a Home Economics Teaching Tool. April 1951.

The Way to a Man's Heart. February 1951.

Which Is Your Muffin? Molly Biles, Jane Gibson, and Clare O'Neal. January 1952.

Some Why's and How's of Bulletin Boards and Exhibits. Margaret Virginia Downey. February 1952.

You may wish to borrow the following from your library:

The Handbook of Window Displays. Nestor Castro. 224 pp., illus. Hastings House Pub., Inc., 41 East 50th Street, New York 22. 1953.

## Checklist for selecting visual aids

A variety of visual aids can make teaching more effective. The following checklist can help you in the selection of visual aids that are suitable:

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Doubtful</u>
1. Does the visual aid contribute to the learning of the group?	_____	_____	_____
2. Does it help the group to reach its objectives?	_____	_____	_____
3. Does it give an accurate picture of the ideas it presents? (Are the facts correct? Is the information up to date? Is the picture up to date?)	_____	_____	_____
4. Is it adapted to the age, intelligence, and experience of the group?	_____	_____	_____
5. Is it worth the time, effort, and expense involved?	_____	_____	_____
6. Is it in good condition for use? (Have you helped keep it in good condition?)	_____	_____	_____ + _____

### Field trips

A field trip or tour is a planned visit to a place that can provide educational experiences. It may influence attitudes, and it can arouse interest.

To increase the effectiveness of a field trip--

- (1) Plan ahead with the group who are to go or who are to be visited.
- (2) Discuss the problems the trip can help to solve.
- (3) Plan the schedule carefully, so that the trip will be educational.
- (4) Make sure the guide is given information about the type of group and purpose of the trip.
- (5) Break into small groups so that you can see and hear the guide.
- (6) Follow through the discussion of observations made on trip.

### Your Publications

The preparation of booklets, bulletins, and leaflets involves a knowledge of printing, writing, and design; illustration, psychology, and human understanding and salesmanship; plus a pinch of imagination and a dash of enterprise, a cup of determination, and a quart of patience. Reports, letters and memoranda, skits, telecasts, and radio scripts all require many of the same skills.

In planning effective materials, observe these principles: (1) State the purpose, (2) know the audience, (3) understand the distribution and the packaging, (4) develop the theme, (5) make the rough copy, (6) visualize the cover, and (7) get the right title.

## Type of publication

Booklet.--A small book of printed pages. It can contain a few pages or many pages (8 to 32 or more). It can be bound in self-covers, or be more elaborate, with paper or board covers. "Bulletin" is the term frequently used by Government and private agencies for publications of this type.

Leaflet or folder.--This printed form is made of a single large sheet of paper, folded to form small pages, but not stitched. It can be folded flat and mailed in standard-size business envelopes.

Circular.--This is a designation that can be applied loosely to a variety of printed pieces. A circular may be a single leaf, a folder, or a booklet of a few pages. Circulars can be designed to be folded flat and mailed in standard-size envelopes.

All these specialized publications are alike in one respect: Each is a unit, complete in itself for the purpose intended, devoted to a single phase of a broad or general subject. The content is defined and limited by subject and size.

Know or define the specifications and limitations on every publication:

1. What is the size of the publication?
2. Is the publication to be printed in black and white or two colors?
3. Do illustrations consist of drawings or photographs or both?
4. Who is to plan and lay out the publication?
5. What is the publication date?

## Planning and advance preparation

1. Purpose of publication.--Be sure you know (a) the general subject matter to be covered, and (b) the basic purpose.

If the purpose is not clear, the publication is likely to be a failure and not used even if distributed.

Is it to educate? Does it tell how to feed a child, how to plan meals for a family of seven--ages from 7 months to 70 years? The publication should be helpful in raising standards and should furnish information about a better way to do the job or reach the goal, so that the reader will not be satisfied until he has raised his own standards.

Is it to promote? Do the people in your State need to eat more leafy green vegetables or to drink more milk?

Is it to stimulate action? Such publications pose a problem for the purpose of getting the reader to do something about it. Some good examples are: How important is enrichment legislation or its enforcement in your State? Could the schools have milk-vending machines instead of those for carbonated beverage?

Is it to inform? How much does it add to the understanding of members of the home demonstration clubs if they have an opportunity to know just what

families in other countries have to eat? Would wiser food-conservation practices result if the members knew the relative values of foods preserved by different methods, and ways to use these foods in appetizing meals with a minimum of work?

Can you close your eyes and "see" the person who is to read, and use, and enjoy your publication-to-be? Don't talk about his problems, but analyze them and figure out what is to go into the publication that will help him. What is the purpose? Make it crystal clear. State it. Examine it. Subject it to examination by others. Review pieces you have put out before, and those that come to your desk. See if you can realistically and honestly see their purpose.

2. Audience or readers.--Who are the people you want to teach? Are they the people that come to club meetings, or are they the people that never come to club meetings? What kind of people are they, big farmers or small farmers, urban or suburban dwellers? Is farming their source of income? Are they teenagers; are they past middle age; or are they in that vital group, eager for help yet hesitating to seek it--the 18- to 35-year age group? What are they interested in? What questions would they want answered about themselves that might be related to food, its production, preservation, preparation, serving, or effect on the body?

Can you put yourself in the place of the reader? If you cannot, then before you go further: SURVEY, VISIT, SAMPLE. Knowing your subject is not enough; know your audience also.

3. Distribution.--Mailing and distribution plans should always be considered. To the extent feasible, series of publications and even all publications put out by an organization may be kept uniform in dimension to minimize mailing, storage, and filing problems. Or two or three sizes can be adopted and, generally speaking, they will cover the variations desired, without monotony.

Distribution will also include meetings of various kinds, filling requests, and answering inquiries. Know exactly how, where, and when you are going to distribute your materials before you produce them.

4. Theme.--The body of the publication will include the text, the design, photographs or other illustrations, headings, subheadings, and captions. Writing the text will depend somewhat on the subject matter. It also depends on the device you decide to use to get the story of your audience. Words, illustrations, type faces and sizes, and the arrangement should be blended to give a pleasing whole that will stimulate action.

5. The copy.--The dummy is a planned layout of copy that shows how a publication will look in printed form. The following suggestions may help in planning the dummy:

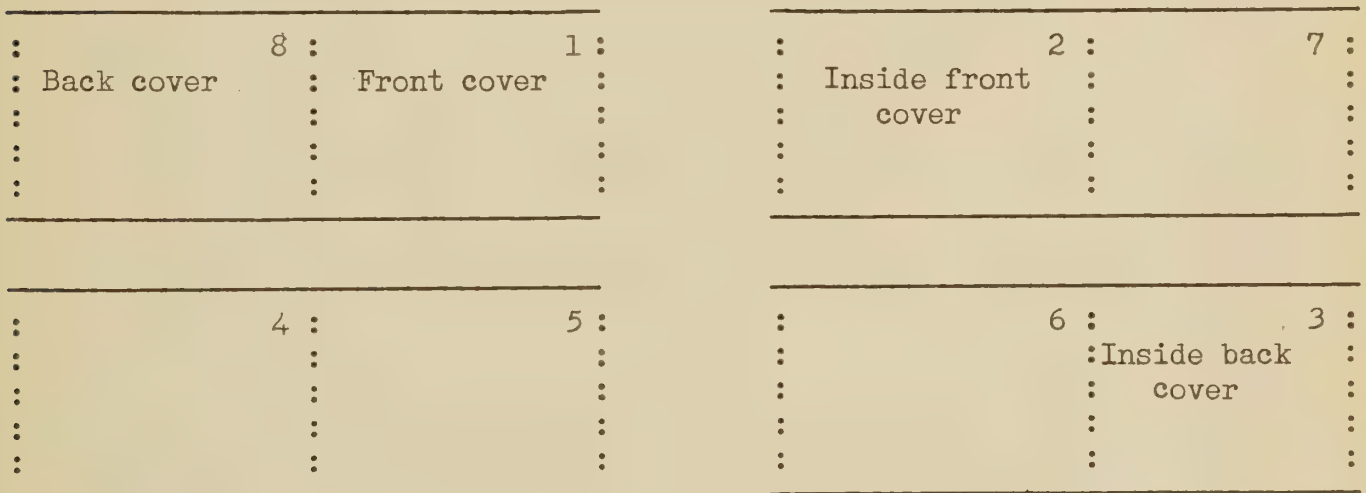
First, visualize the publication as a whole. Design pages to achieve balance in content and appearance. Have facing pages harmonious. Make headings show action by using verbs. Use different sizes of type for emphasis. Blank space, short paragraphs, and short printed lines help to make for readability.

These few suggestions may help: Keep the copy simple, use human terms in telling your story. Don't preach, don't overlead with emotion. Keep the publication short, but make your point clear, let the reader know what is expected of him. Avoid overloading the text with statistics. Make the language fit the audience and end on a strong note.

6. The cover.--An imaginative cover is an important element. It will get your reader inside. If he does not turn the first page, your message has been lost. The major objective is to symbolize or illustrate the message. The cover may include a striking photograph, an arresting caption or title, a spot of color, or a design with life and distinction that will attract attention. Imagination and ingenuity are required in creating the cover. A picture showing human beings in action, if suitable to the text, makes a effective cover illustration.

7. The title.--Find the right title for your publication. There is no set way of doing this, however. It may be based on the copy, or the cover illustration may suggest it. Any you may change it a dozen times before you make your final choice.

The following diagram shows one method of visualizing an entire booklet:



## References

- How To Write for Homemakers. Lou Richardson and Genevieve Callahan. 206 pp. Iowa State Col. Press, Ames, Iowa. 1949.
- Pamphlets That Pull. Alexander L. Crosby. 32 pp. Natl. Publicity Council for Health and Welfare Serv., 257 Fourth Avenue, New York 10. 1948.
- Annual Reports. How To Plan and Write Them. Beatrice K. Tolleris. 39 pp. Natl. Publicity Council for Health and Welfare Serv., 257 Fourth Avenue, New York 10. 1950.
- Photography for Teen-Agers. Lucille Robertson Marshall. 165 pp. Prentice-Hall, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York 11. 1951.
- How To Make Good Pictures. 240 pp. Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester 4, N. Y. 1951.

## Writing Sense for Readers<sup>6</sup>

Your home economics publications are textbooks for homemakers of various levels of education and of different interests. And to bait and hold their interest you must pack your writing with appeal. Tell them it's good to eat as well as good for you; delicious as well as nutritious.

The trick is to slant your information to their interests as well as to their needs and at the same time divert their interests in the right direction. Combine what you think they ought to read with what they want to read. Write it in plain talk that communicates your ideas in interesting, easy reading--the way you talk to homemakers on the radio.

They'll read it if it's readable. What is readable writing? It's writing that appeals because it has variety, not monotony. Readable writing is writing that makes sense for readers because it is easy to read.

Doesn't it just make sense that the simpler you write, the more sense your words make for your readers? Suppose Benjamin Franklin had written, "Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man salubrious, opulent, and sagacious." Do you think we would still be quoting this proverb?

Did you know that Franklin didn't originate the statement, "Early to bed, and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise?" He borrowed it from something written in 1598 called A Health to the Gentle Profession of Servingmen, in which the original ran as follows: "That he may be healthy, happy, and wise, let him rise early."

Franklin changed this enough to make it his own words. He threw out the "that" clause, he threw in a live verb (makes), he changed the word order, and made this proverb live.

You see, it isn't what you say, it's the way you say it, that determines whether or not your words make sense for your readers. Words in themselves are not the cause of reading difficulty; how you use words, the word form and word order (in sentences), determine whether you inform or confuse your readers.

There's more to preparing a bulletin than just throwing words between two covers. To pack your writing with appeal, and to make sense for readers, you have to plan, write and trim your words.

### Plan Easy Reading

Easy reading doesn't just happen. You must plan easy reading. Write the way an architect builds. An architect first drafts his plan and designs every detail. "The first rule of a good style is to have something to say; in fact, this in itself is almost enough," said Schopenhauer in his Essay on Style.

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<sup>6</sup> Prepared by Mrs. Amy Cowing, educationist, Division of Extension Research and Training, Federal Extension Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Have something to say and be sure of your facts. For the success of your publication depends on how well you know your subject, how carefully you think it through, and how skillfully you plan it. Good planning means planning on paper how to select, sift, sort, sell, and say your facts. Good planning helps you to be specific and concrete.

#### First, you SELECT:

What to communicate. Give homemakers something suitable, interesting, and worthwhile. Give them practical information, something they can use, something they can afford to use.

Who your readers are. Who are the homemakers you want to reach? What are their age levels, their educational levels and interests? Do they have the environment and capacity to make use of information?

Why, or purpose of publication: What do you want it to accomplish? Do you want to stimulate interest in a new project? Or do you want to influence readers to carry out a project; teach them how to do something? Be sure of your purpose: if you don't know why you are putting it out, how can you expect your readers to figure it out?

#### Second, you SIFT:

Sift essential facts necessary to get your ideas across. Screen out irrelevant ideas or difficult concepts that are beyond the reader's experience or understanding. Don't start average readers on such technical concepts as "vitamin concentrates, carotene-content, international units, micrograms, milligrams, or nutritive value of 100 grams of foods." Give the layman an appreciation of the subject rather than a detailed explanation. Express highlights; don't im-press readers with all you know. Remember--it is just as important to gear the concept to the comprehension capacities of laymen as it is to gear the language level to their reading capacities. Good sifting of facts is the secret of not talking down or talking over people's heads.

#### Third, you SORT:

Arrange facts in logical order. Give information so reader can follow it step by step. Put first things first. Keep related things together. Set out important points in 1-2-3 order; help your readers find your facts.

Guide your readers with snappy subheads--subheads with live verbs that help readers find their way.

Give a preview, contents, and review of information in your longer bulletins. A live table of contents made up of live subheads is a good preview.

Fourth, you SELL:

Motivate your reader to want to read it, to read it, and to act on information. Identify information with readers' interest. They remember best what interests them or what they want to learn. Usually some success factor makes people want to learn or follow new ideas.

Bait readers' interest with short paragraphs (especially on first page), live subheads, and an eye-catching title with live verbs. A good title with a live verb may sell your readers on reading the bulletin. A good title selects your audience. It sorts out you, the reader, and identifies the subject with your interest.

Fifth, you SAY your facts in:

- (a) Short sentences--the shorter the better. Say one thing and only one thing in each sentence. Put qualifying "which" or "that" clauses in your next sentence. Sometimes, use a semicolon or colon to tie related ideas together; they help get rid of chop-piness. Thackeray said it this way: "Life is a mirror: if you frown at it, it frowns back; if you smile, it returns the greet-ing." (Three related ideas; each is independent and can stand alone. Count as three sentences.)

Readability means variety, not monotony. Vary sentence length and sentence pattern like this, "Whenever you can shorten a sentence, do. And you always can. The best sentence? The shortest."

- (b) Short words--the shorter the better. Use the simplest word that carries your meaning. Mark Twain used to say, "I never use me-tropolis for 7 cents when I can get the same price for city."

Translate technical words that have no simple synonyms or simple definitions into concrete words that laymen know. Example: Translate vitamins into foods where you find vitamins, or tell how vitamins help you.

Use the simplest word form that carries your meaning. For example, say: farmers produce or raise record crops. Don't say: The production of crops was recorded as the highest in the history of extension work. Use live verbs instead of verbals. Shun the "tion" words and the "ing" words. They're verbals. Sometimes you may have to say, demonstration, extension, or "A cow's frame or build is called her conformation." Use present tense instead of past. Use active voice instead of passive.

- (c) Personal words--the more the better. Sprinkle generously with "you," "they," and "people" words, such as boy, girl, mother. A person-to-person style of writing "talks" to the reader in active voice, the way people speak to each other. Cookbook style implies

"you"; this is one of the best ways to write information simply. When you write to "you," the reader, it helps the reader identify himself with your writing.

Populating your writing with people always makes it more alive and interesting. Of course you must use judgment in personalizing your writing. You can't just spray it with a lot of we's and you's unless they really belong there.

You can personalize in first, second, or third person and communicate your ideas effectively. But watch it. Don't say: When the farmer takes his hide to the tanner. Don't do what the village blacksmith did when he instructed his apprentice as follows: "When I take the shoe out of the fire, I'll lay it on the anvil; and when I nod my head, you hit it with the hammer." The apprentice did just as he was told. Now, he's the village blacksmith.

### Write Easy Reading

How well you sell ideas depends on how clearly you say them. Words are your salesmen. How well you use words determines their selling power; whether or not you make sense for readers. To show how short sentences, short words, and personal words work together to get ideas across, compare these passages on vitamins:

#### Hard Reading

Neither growth nor health can be sustained unless the daily foods provide certain essentials which are called vitamins. Research has shown that the vitamins have great importance in many of the vital activities of the body. Health, growth, development, and fortification of the body against disease (all of which are directly affected by the vitamin content of the foods eaten) can be influenced by a careful selection of foods. There are various kinds of vitamins, each kind having its own characteristics and functions. Vitamin concentrates are of great value where restricted diets or one-sided diets imposed by low incomes, ignorance, or indulgence have resulted in serious shortages or in acute symptoms of deficiency diseases, such as pellagra, scurvy, beriberi, and rickets.--College level.

#### Easy Reading

YOU need vitamins. Everyone does--young and old. YOU need vitamins to build a healthy body and to keep fit and strong. When YOU eat fresh vegetables from YOUR garden YOU get vitamins in their natural form. Seeds are rich in certain vitamins. Green growing plants produce and hold them. Ripe fruits, vegetables, and grains give YOU vitamins, along with other nourishment. YOU can't taste vitamins or smell them. For the most part YOU can't even see them in the food YOU eat. To get all the vitamins YOU need for all-round health, try to have in YOUR meals every day the following basic seven foods--Sixth grade level.

Hard to read because:

Long sentences: Average 24 words. Too many ideas and "which" clauses in sentences. Density of ideas.

Long, abstract words: 169 syllables per 100 words. Many verbal nouns and participles stuffed with affixes (prefixes and suffixes "fixed" on to root words)-- 57 affixes (underscored) per 100 words. Technical words not translated into simpler terms.

No personal references or "people" words. No direct appeal to the reader. Passive voice makes this impersonal.

### Trim Your Writing

Next time you write something, where possible,--Go on a WHICH HUNT. Hunt for qualifying "which" or "that" clauses; make them into another sentence. "Whiches" multiply like rabbits. Leave in defining "which" or "that" clauses. Go on a BE HUNT. Hunt for passive voice; change it to active voice.

WEED out unnecessary:

Ideas. Be brief and to the point. Brevity pays off in readers. Brevity is the art of saying volumes without writing them.

Introduction. Take a nose dive right into your subject. If you must write an introduction, be brief and get on the homemaker's level. Identify the subject with her interests; let her know it will pay her to read it. If you lose her in the beginning, you lose her altogether.

Sentences and parts of sentences (qualifying clauses). Break up sentences at the joints.

Words--(a) empty words such as prepositions, articles, and conjunctions that you sometimes use as tissue words; (b) qualifying adjectives and adverbs (leave in when they define the words they "gossip" about).

Parts of words--affixes that pile up when you use participles, passive voice, past tense, and verbal nouns, such as production, movement. Shun the "tion" words and the "ment" words and the "ing" words--They're verbal nouns and verbal adjectives.

Doubletalk--circumlocution--pardon me, I must shun the "tion" words--so let's say: Stop beating around the bush.

Easy to read because:

Short sentences: Average 11 words. One idea expressed clearly in each sentence. No "which" clauses.

Short, concrete words: 135 syllables per 100 words. Writer changes verbal nouns to verbs (shuns the "tion" words); translates technical "vitamin" into concrete foods (where you find vitamins); uses short root words with few affixes (22 per 100 words).

Human-interest words: 11 personal references (capitalized) per 100 words. Writer "talks" to YOU in active voice.

## Check How Your Writing Reads

Here's a quick way to estimate how easy or how hard your writing is to read. Count a 100-word passage. Start at the beginning of a paragraph. Make a pencil mark after the 100th word. Count as one word all groups of letters or numbers that are completely surrounded by white space. For example, count each of the following as one word: \$289,653; 1950; e. g.; c. o. d.; couldn't; well-being.

Count the number of syllables in these hundred words. Count syllables the way you pronounce them; for example, count asked as one syllable. To save time, count all syllables except the first in all words of more than one syllable; then add the total to 100.

In the 100-word sample, figure the average sentence length. Sentences don't always end at the 100-word mark. Find the sentence that ends nearest the 100-word mark (that may be at the 96th word or 107th word). Count the number of sentences up to that point and estimate average sentence length for the sample.

In counting sentences, follow each unit of thought rather than punctuation: usually sentences are marked off by periods, question marks, or exclamation points; but sometimes they are marked off by colons or semicolons--like this. (Count this compound sentence as three sentences.)

In the 100-word sample, count words that refer to people, names of people, and personal pronouns.

Here is a table worked out by Dr. Rudolf Flesch to check the difficulty of your writing without figuring the mathematical score by his readability formula (described above). "Standard" is what the average American can read easily. Most children in the eighth grade can easily read sentences averaging 17 words. The average adult in the United States has had about 8 or 9 years of schooling. (Reader's Digest uses the 17-word average sentence length as a standard of what an average adult can read easily). The 1950 census gives the school grade levels of adults. Maybe this table will help you check the reading level of your publications.

Reading level	Very easy, 5th grade and under	Easy, 6th grade	Fairly easy, 7th grade	Standard, 8th and 9th grades	Fairly hard, 3d year high school	Hard, college	Very hard, graduate
Average sentence length in words-----	8	11	14	<u>17</u>	21	25	29
Syllables per 100 words-----	127	134	142	<u>150</u>	158	166	175
Personal ref- erences per 100 words-----	19	14	10	<u>6</u>	4	3	2
Typical magazines	Comics	Pulp; True Story	Collier's; Ladies' Home Journal	Reader's Digest; Time	Atlantic Monthly; Harpers	Scholarly; Yale Review	Scientific and profes- sional

## References

- How To Test Readability. Rudolf Flesch. 56 pp. Harper & Bros., New York. 1951.
- Notes for the Guidance of Authors of Extension Bulletins. No. 6 ETI Series.  
Nell B. Leonard. 16 pp. Cornell Univ., Ithaca, N. Y. 1954.
- Snappy Styles for Your Bulletin. La. Ext. Pub. 1090. Rev. ed., 15 pp. La.  
State Univ., Baton Rouge 3. 1951.

## How To Write Recipes

Writing recipes is fun, but can be a "ticklish" job, because recipes must be accurate and clearly described if you expect them to be used successfully.

Ingredients should be given in the order in which they will be used; cookery methods should be those that the reader will understand or else be carefully and thoroughly explained. If, in addition, a recipe has appetite appeal and reflects the writer's friendly effort to be helpful, naturally it will be more readable.

Before you write the recipe you should, of course, test it and make sure that the steps you are recommending are best and that the recipe will produce a good product. Always test every recipe before you use it.

Homemakers may be young or old, with no experience or a great deal. They may or may not be skillful in following directions and in handling food. The equipment they use may include temperature-controlled ovens, thermometers, and pressure cookers, and every gadget on the market; or it may be limited to a minimum of kitchen necessities. Regardless of these factors most homemakers prepare or supervise the preparation of three meals daily and often add between-meal snacks and refreshments for family entertaining. This means using recipes.

Be practical! Modern food industries strive to simplify cookery techniques required in the use of their products, so that homemakers require minimum time and need few special skills, and then pass along to food writers and educators the benefit of the experience gained in their own research kitchens. Homemakers, in turn, look to food writers and educators for recipes that will give the greatest returns from new products and that also show ways of adapting new products to their own favorite recipes.

Good recipe writing is an art that includes good, clear expression, a recognition of whether the homemaker's cookery experiences have been broad or limited, an awareness of the lack of uniformity in kitchen equipment, and a knowledge of the many developments in the processing of foodstuffs.

Pick your basic pattern.--There are four basic patterns for writing recipes: (1) The conventional-command pattern, (2) the conventional pattern, (3) the action step-command pattern, (4) the conversational pattern. A great many

writers and publications vary, however, and combine these patterns to achieve a combination pattern which carries with it the personality of the writer or conforms more closely to the space limitations of the publication.

Be consistent.--Whatever the pattern decided upon, every writer of recipes should strive for consistency when using terms and phrases that describe similar products or operations. This is particularly true when several recipes are grouped together as in a booklet, article, or cookbook.

In a well-edited manuscript, the best phrase is selected for use in all the recipes. The expression selected usually depends upon the personal preference of the writer, or perhaps upon a regional expression familiar to those who will use the recipes, or upon whether the audience requires brief phrases or expansive, descriptive ones. Consistency not only is a sign of a professionally edited job, but makes food preparation less confusing. This is particularly true for inexperienced cooks, who may conclude that different phrasing means different ingredients or procedures are required.

Following are the four basic recipe patterns:

For the conventional-command pattern the ingredients are listed in the order of their use, and the instructions are given in steps. This method is particularly good for inexperienced cooks; it is excellent for use with 4-H members. It is good for more complex recipes such as for baking. Although it takes more space in a booklet than does the conventional method, it is well worth the space if you expect the recipe to be used rather than merely read.

#### Basic-Roll Dough

3/4 cup milk	1 package or cake yeast,
1/4 cup sugar	active dry or compressed
2 1/4 teaspoons salt	3/4 cup warm, not hot, water
1/4 cup shortening	(lukewarm for compressed yeast)
4 1/2 cups sifted, enriched flour	

1. Scald milk, stir in sugar, salt, and shortening. Set aside to cool to lukewarm.
2. Sprinkle or crumble yeast into water (warm, not hot, for active dry yeast; lukewarm for compressed yeast). Stir until dissolved.
3. Combine the lukewarm milk and yeast mixtures.
4. Add and stir in half of the flour; beat until smooth.
5. Add and stir in remaining flour or enough to make a stiff dough; turn out on a lightly floured board and knead 8 to 10 minutes or until the surface of the dough is smooth and satiny and the dough feels springy and elastic and does not stick to the board.
6. Put dough into a greased bowl; brush top lightly with soft or melted fat, cover with a cloth.

7. Let rise in a warm place, free from draft, until double in bulk; about 1 1/2 hours.
8. Punch down, pull sides into center, turn out on lightly floured board.
9. Shape into desired form and put into a greased muffin pan or on greased cooky sheets.
10. Cover with a cloth and let rise in a warm place, free from draft, until doubled in bulk; about 30 to 40 minutes.

Bake as follows: For Parker House rolls on cooky sheets at 425°F. (hot oven) about 20 minutes; makes 24. For cloverleaf rolls in muffin pans with 2 1/2- by 1 1/4-inch cups at 425°F. (hot oven), about 15 minutes; makes 24. For Fan Tans in muffin pans with 2-1/2- by 1-1/4-inch cups at 400°F. (hot oven), about 20 minutes; makes 24.

For the conventional pattern the ingredients are listed first in order of their use. The directions are given in a continuous paragraph. This pattern is best used with simple recipes and is for experienced cooks. The recipe is more difficult to follow.

#### Basic-Roll Dough

3/4 cup milk	1 package of cake yeast, active
1/4 cup sugar	dry or compressed
2 1/4 teaspoons salt	3/4 cup warm, not hot, water
1/4 cup shortening	(lukewarm for compressed yeast)
4 1/4 cups sifted, enriched flour	

Scald the milk and stir in the sugar, salt, and shortening; set aside to cool to lukewarm. Sprinkle or crumble yeast into water (warm, not hot, for active dry yeast; lukewarm for compressed yeast). Stir until dissolved. Combine the lukewarm milk and yeast mixtures. Add and stir in half the flour. Beat until smooth. ...

The action-step command pattern is well adapted to recipes in which many steps are involved. Older cooks may find difficulty in following this pattern, since they are not accustomed to the style.

#### Basic Roll Dough:

##### SCALD:

3/4 cup milk

##### ADD AND STIR IN:

1/4 cup sugar

2 1/2 teaspoons salt

1/4 cup shortening

MEASURE into large bowl:

3/4 cup warm, not hot, water for active dry yeast  
(lukewarm for compressed yeast)

SPRINKLE OR CRUMBLE IN:

1 package or cake yeast, active dry or compressed.

STIR until dissolved. ADD milk mixture, cooled to lukewarm.

ADD AND STIR IN:

2 1/4 cup sifted, enriched flour or enough to make a stiff dough.

BEAT until smooth.

ADD AND STIR IN:

Additional 2 1/4 cups sifted, enriched flour.

Turn out dough on lightly floured board. KNEAD 8 to 10 minutes or until the surface of the dough is smooth and satiny and the dough feels springy and elastic and does not stick to the board. PLACE in a greased bowl. BRUSH top lightly with soft or melted fat. \*\*\*

The conversational pattern is good for newspapers and magazines where it is read for pleasure as well as for making the product. It occupies more space than other patterns and calls for definite writing style if it is to be effective. Information as to the "whys" can, however, be incorporated.

#### Basic-Roll Dough

Measure into a small saucepan 3/4 cup milk and heat to scalding. Remove from heat and stir in 1/4 cup sugar, 2 1/4 teaspoons salt, and 1/4 cup shortening. Set aside to cool to lukewarm. Measure into a large bowl 3/4 cup warm, not hot, water for active dry yeast; lukewarm for compressed yeast. The dry yeast is much more convenient because you can keep it in the little foil envelopes for months on the pantry shelf, or even longer tucked into a corner of the refrigerator, and it dissolves fast and easily in the warm, not hot, water. Sprinkle or crumble 1 package of dry yeast or 1 cake of compressed yeast into water and stir until dissolved. \*\*\*

#### References

Handbook of Food Preparation. Rev. ed. 1600 20th Street NW., Washington 9, D. C. 1954.

How To Write for Homemakers. L. Richardsen and G. Callahan. 206 pp. Iowa State Col. Press, Ames, Iowa. 1949.

Evaluation and Simplification of Recipes. Jour. Amer. Dietet. Assoc., vol. 28, pp. 425-28. 1952.

Report of First Annual Cookbook Recipe Conference. United Fruit Co., New York.  
1951.

Report of Second Annual Cookbook Recipe Conference. United Fruit Co., New York.  
1952.

### Selecting Good Commercial Material

Commercial material, if well selected, can be of invaluable assistance. You can get new bulletins on many subjects, leaflets (mostly recipe), charts and graphs, posters, exhibits, pictures, and histories of industries or products, all at little or no cost.

The following criteria apply in selection and use:

1. Good content

- a. Worthwhile information.
- b. Little if any unrelated material.
- c. Applicable to home and family needs.
- d. Not at variance with good home economics principles.
- e. Won't become outdated too quickly.
- f. Adaptable, if possible, for more than one situation.

2. Acceptable advertising

- a. No objectional statements.
- b. Wording and content in good taste.
- c. Conforms to policy of State Extension Service.

3. Effective presentation

- a. Suitable for audience; that is, for specific age level to be reached.
- b. Simple, easy to read.
- c. Adequate in color and spacing.
- d. Satisfactory lettering, not too fine print.

4. Miscellaneous standards

- a. Size--to fit available storage space, display area, etc.
- b. Durability--practical for purpose needed; for example, if for reference use, should not tear or soil easily.
- c. Cost, if any, should be in line with budget allowance and publication's potential helpfulness.

### Reference

Business-Sponsored Home Economics Teaching Aids. Their Preparation and Use.  
U. S. Dept. Health, Ed., and Welfare, Off. Ed., Washington 25, D. C.

## Training Meetings

### Training agents to teach foods and nutrition

#### In-service training meetings

The specialist trains a large number of agents in a short time. Such training may be planned as the need arises or as part of the yearly program. It may be given at State, district, or other group meetings. Material may be presented by extension subject-matter specialists, the resident teaching staff, commercial demonstrators, and others. It should be based on the needs of the agents. It may include--

1. Training new agents in subjects such as food preservation, gardening, and poultry, in which they have had little training.
2. Bringing agents up to date on recent developments in the field.
3. Making available new subject matter, methods of teaching, and suggestions for using the methods.

#### Subject-matter training

Subject-matter training is best done with groups of agents. Workshops may be suitable for certain types of subject matter.

The subject matter should be gone over slowly and thoroughly. Specialists should work out with the agents details for the method of conducting the leader-training meeting. They should help the agents to know how to adapt material for their counties. This might include preparation of a guide or outline and recipe sheets for use by leaders.

Visual aids and materials for leaders to give to members might be prepared and assembled. Agents must be given a chance to participate in food preparation, discussion, and other activities. Agents should understand the purpose of the project. They should see the relation of this unit of work to the overall nutrition project. Suggestions should be made for reports and evaluation.

#### Special agent conferences

Both the agent and the specialist should assume certain responsibilities. The agent should plan exactly what is wanted from the specialist and send her full details ahead of time. No other work should be planned during the time the specialist is to be with her. Arrangements should be made for a quiet conference place or other necessary facilities.

The specialist should have an understanding with the agent as to the time allotted to her. She should be prepared with materials needed to assist the agent. For specialist-agent conferences, the following suggestions are made:

1. Help to get background information and interpret it.
2. Assist in planning the longtime nutrition program and the annual plan of work, or in analyzing the plan already made.
3. Hold sample leader-training meetings.
4. Assist with countywide activities, either in planning or by participation in program.
5. Assist in planning for leader training and method demonstration for adult and 4-H Clubs.
6. Assist in planning or writing news articles, radio scripts, and circular letters.
7. Assist in planning exhibits, fairs, and achievement-day activities.
8. Help with the procedure and methods of conducting meetings.
9. Check with the agent on materials needed in the files.
10. Suggest use of materials mailed from the State office for keeping the agent up to date.
11. Discuss with the agent how to use her time effectively on nutrition.
12. Help the agent to evaluate the nutrition program and make plans for the followup.

#### Keeping agents up to date

The specialist should make every possible effort to keep the agents up to date on the following:

1. New research in the field and its implications for teaching.
2. Research findings that should be adopted.
3. Extension studies in the field of nutrition and their evaluation and use.
4. New foods and their uses.
5. New materials available from commercial concerns, and their evaluation and use. This includes charts and leaflets.
6. New films, their evaluation, availability, and use.
7. Other new teaching aids and their use.
8. New reference materials and their use.

#### Helping to make the agent's job easier

1. Discuss the best ways to plan an effective foods and nutrition program.
2. Help with ways of evaluating the program.
3. Prepare a "keep up to date" circular at intervals.
4. Prepare timely circulars for use by agents.
5. Show new materials at group meetings of agents.
6. Prepare project materials--for both adults and 4-H'ers--using new ideas.
7. Revise outdated materials.
8. Prepare timely news items, radio spots, scripts, and tape recordings for distribution by the editorial or information office.
9. Invite resident and experiment-station personnel to participate in meetings. Point out to the experiment station the needs of the people in the State.

10. Help the agent to plan how she herself can keep up to date in the field of nutrition.
11. Prepare or obtain kits and other visual aids and keep them available for loan to agents.
12. Suggest how (a) motion pictures, (b) slides or slidefilms, (c) charts and graphs, and (d) flashcards, pictures, and radio may be used effectively.
13. Arrange to have commercial materials mailed directly to agents who might use them.
14. Suggest ideas for educational exhibits.
15. Make suggestions for club demonstrations in nutrition.

#### Training leaders for 4-H or adult groups

At a leader-training meeting we need to demonstrate how to teach as well as what to teach. Leader training is concerned with the development of people as well as with skills and techniques and subject matter. In training leaders you are working with people as well as with the scientific subject matter of foods and nutrition. A friendly, informal atmosphere helps to promote learning. In considering the leaders, plan to--

1. Give inspiration as well as training. Help the leaders to develop their potential capabilities and a feeling of responsibility.
2. Help them to understand what is expected and how to carry out their jobs. (Leaders may handle local arrangements and publicity, develop community interest and activity, take back information to groups, and check the spread of practices.)
3. Help them to realize the rewards of being a leader--personal development, social opportunity, new friends, and new learning.
4. Encourage leaders to work in pairs so that they supplement each other's abilities.
5. Provide for recognition of leaders' contributions.
6. Do not try to teach too much at one time.
7. Provide a comfortable room, where everyone can see and hear. For a successful discussion, seating arrangement is important.

#### Careful planning is important

1. Plan the meeting to hold the interest of the group. Meetings that drag result in lagging attention, diversion of interest, boredom, and gossip.
2. Provide an opportunity for sociability. It may be a short recess, serving of refreshments, or a meal.
3. Plan the training meeting with the local agent. Be sure that the agent knows what is expected well ahead of time.
4. Adapt arrangements to local situations, the facilities, numbers to be trained, current trends, interests, needs, and economic situation.
5. Arrange for supplies, equipment, visual aids, illustrative material, and leaflets for distribution.

### Objectives should be set up

1. Keep in mind the needs, interests, and abilities of the group. A knowledge of human hopes, desires, and motives can do much to help promote effectiveness of good teaching.
2. State your objectives clearly. This helps in planning and evaluating a project.
3. Goals for each meeting should be specific and attainable. Consider the importance of better family living rather than merely the development of skills and techniques.
4. Skills and techniques may be used to promote broader objectives.
5. Individuals are interested in what nutrition will do for them personally.

### Teaching aims should be established

1. Know what you want to teach, and what the homemaker or 4-H Club member wants to learn.
2. Teach only two or three major points. Adapt these to the interests and needs of the group.
3. Use a practical approach; avoid textbook and academic attitudes. Don't ride your pet hobby.

### Training leaders calls for thought and effort

1. Use the best method for the job.
2. Vary the methods used. There is no one method adapted to all types of training.
3. Simplify methods so that leaders are able to use them effectively.
4. Supplement leader-training meetings with other materials on the same subject through news releases, radio, and the like.
5. Give the leader practice in leading if possible. We learn to do by doing.
6. Adapt the method to fit the situation and the group. Be versatile.
7. Support the method with the best available tools for arousing interest.
8. Instruct leaders in how to prepare followup reports.

### Types of training meetings vary

Select the best method for your subject. Use various tools.

1. The demonstration. Tell how the demonstration was built. For example, discuss meat cookery.
2. The work meeting (with all members participating). Discuss. (Train for community meals.)
3. Role playing, follow by discussion. (Used in teaching child feeding.)
4. Discussion leading to group decision. (Use of powdered milk.)
5. The demonstration-work meeting. (Use of pressure saucepans.)

### Take-home materials are useful

1. Supply leaders with accurate up-to-date take-home materials. Give them enough copies for their groups.
2. Include points that are to be made. Make them appealing and easy to use and as foolproof as possible.
3. Keep in mind that most leaders do not spend a great deal of time preparing for meetings.
4. Furnish leaders with specific but adaptable guides to assist them in planning and preparing for meetings.
5. Provide them with information for answering questions.
6. Use illustrative materials that can be made available to leaders.

### Good methods make for good training

1. Use an interest-getting introduction.
2. Build on experiences of the group. Start where members are.
3. Show the relation between what they know and what is being taught, especially in a series of meetings.
4. Repeatedly stress the important points.
5. Give material in short units.
6. Show leaders how to apply principles and how to adapt information to their situations.
7. Help leaders to understand that their job is to pass on information accurately rather than to make judgments based on their own ideas and experiences.
8. Provide an opportunity for actual participation by each leader.
9. Provide a chance to exchange ideas.
10. Encourage leaders to delegate jobs in their group meetings.
11. Suggest local sources of additional help such as the local library and trained people in the community.
12. Allow time for questions.
13. Summarize the "why," "what," "how," "when," and "who" of the specific unit.

### Example of leader training in Colorado

Programs, and methods for carrying out programs, vary considerably from county to county and also change from year to year. To be successful, a program must not be static but must be flexible enough to permit changes. Although all the different methods are used for carrying on the extension program in Colorado,<sup>7</sup> a great deal of the work in that State is done through the training of leaders. These leaders are responsible for taking back to their own local groups the information presented at the training meeting.

Home demonstration work in Colorado has two main objectives, each of which could be broken down into a number of other objectives:

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<sup>7</sup> Helen Prout, Colorado State home agent. Colorado Workshop, 1953.

1. To disseminate educational material that will improve homes and communities.
2. To develop people and, more specifically, leaders.

### Types of leaders

Leaders are considered to be of three different types:

1. Project or subject-matter leaders.
2. Neighborhood leaders.
3. Sponsors (youth work).

The project leader is considered as one of the most important in the home demonstration program.

### Project leaders

1. Project leaders are thought of as major and minor leaders, or they may be designated Leaders A and B.
  - a. The major leader, or Leader A, is the one who is directly responsible for seeing that the work is obtained and carried out.
  - b. The minor leader, or Leader B, is the assistant.
  - c. Leaders carry through for 2 years, Leader B becoming Leader A the second year.
  - d. Continuing the leaders for a 2-year term means better training of leaders and more effective work being done for the clubs.
2. Choosing the project leaders.
  - a. Project leaders are obtained by appointment, election, or volunteering.
  - b. Selection is made according to interest, qualification for a particular type of work, and ability and willingness to attend leader-training meetings and take the work back to the group.
3. Responsibilities of leaders.

Leaders should have an understanding of what responsibilities are connected with the position before accepting an appointment. Some of the duties are to--

  - a. Attend leader-training meetings and be on time.
  - b. Take an active part in the meetings.
  - c. Prepare for meetings, practice at home, and prepare illustrative materials where indicated.
  - d. Go to club meetings ahead of time and make arrangements with the hostess in order to see that room arrangements are satisfactory.
  - e. Present material to the group in an effective manner.
    - (1) Outline objectives of the meeting.
    - (2) Present the work.
    - (3) Summarize material given.
  - f. Check on previous work that was given and find out how it was used.
  - g. Find out from the women their needs in this particular field.

- h. Learn if there are any questions and, if answers are not known, see that they are found for the women for later on.
- i. Keep informed on material in the field.
- j. Assist in determining county program in the field.
- k. Summarize and evaluate work on club in the field.
- l. See that room is left in order.

### Training centers

1. Should be selected for accessibility.
2. Number of centers planned depends upon the county.

### Type of material for leader-training work

1. All work is not adaptable to leader-training system. Some should be given as of special interest.
2. Have a group of meetings on one particular phase of the subject in order to carry through a concerted effort in one line.

### Specialist responsibility

1. Training of home demonstration agents.
  - a. Workshops, including both subject matter and methods.
  - b. County visits, for office conference, to train leaders, or to help county workers in any other way the workers deem desirable.
  - c. State office contacts through correspondence and office conferences.
2. Preparation of leader-training materials.
3. Training of leaders.

### Workshops<sup>8</sup>

A workshop may be defined as bringing together a group of participants and resource people to develop new ideas and plans and to share new information; or to work together to learn new job performance skills, new ways to prepare reports, diagnose problems, plan programs, or lead discussion groups.

Workshops provide opportunities for participation of every member in working on problems, developing policies, and learning new ways of working which contribute to growth and development.

The term "workshop" is often confused with "institute" and "conference," which feature talks or lectures, although various discussion techniques may be used in connection with them.

The type of meeting selected depends on the purpose of the meeting and the number and needs of participants. If you wished to present new material,

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<sup>8</sup> Reference:

Nutrition Committee News. 4 pp. U. S. Dept. Agr., Human Nutr. and Home Econ. Res. April-June 1953.

such as the latest research on weight control, the lecture method followed by a discussion might be the best way to do it, but this would not be a workshop.

If you wished to have a workshop on weight control, you would find out first what problems the participants had encountered or on what problems they needed help. The problems would be discussed by the group and resource consultants brought in to help members with these problems. The group would share their experiences and perhaps make plans for going back to their States or counties and carrying out a weight-control program.

The success of a workshop depends on every member making a worthwhile contribution, while the success of a conference or institute depends on good lectures. A workshop is more democratic and often may be more helpful, but most of us grew up under the lecture system schools, so we may find workshop techniques difficult. A well-conducted workshop provides the participants with vital experience in democratic procedure.

## 4-H FOODS AND NUTRITION PROGRAMS

### Adapting Our 4-H Program to the Youth of Today

Let's plan our 4-H foods and nutrition projects so they are built on the needs, interests, and abilities of boys and girls as they live today, as well as to help these young people prepare for the future.

If the 4-H projects do not meet their interests, members tend to drop out. Perhaps this is one of the reasons that 33 percent of 4-H girls have been in club work only 1 year, 23 percent 2 years, and 17 percent 3 years. The remaining 33 percent have been in 4 years or more. Fifty-five percent of the members are 9 to 12 years old.

Certainly nutrition is an important subject and, if properly taught, will add to the well-being of the 4-H member. How to teach foods and nutrition so that it will appeal to the 4-H'er depends on how successfully we can build the program to fit the member at his or her various stages of development.

In the rush, specialists sometimes prepare projects without sufficient time to consult with members, leaders, county staffs, and 4-H staffs about what people are doing today or what they are interested in learning.

### Considering the 4-H foods and nutrition program in your State

1. Does your 4-H food and nutrition program consider the age, interest, and ability of the girl or boy?

Some of the States divide their 4-H program into junior and senior projects, which is a step in the right direction, because the interests of youth at 10 and at 16 are different. Girls at 10 years of age are still developing by learning more simple skills. For example, they enjoy learning how to cook because it is a new experience, much as we enjoy learning new hobbies. As the girl gets older, she is not so much interested in skills but more interested in entertaining. She doesn't want to learn to bake cookies just to learn a skill. She wants to use the cookies in entertaining her friends or her family. In working out 4-H projects this change in interests needs to be recognized and emphasized.

2. Consider the food pattern of the families within your State.

Find out actual practices by observation, interviews, and properly prepared questionnaires, which determine the food patterns in the homes, the things the members are now doing at home in preparing and serving food, and the interests of members. It is easier to get family approval if the junior member prepares and serves food that the family already likes. New foods are best introduced to the older members to broaden their knowledge and experience with foods.

3. Consider the need for basing the units of a project on youth interests as they change with age.

When your projects progress from unit 1 to unit 5, do you build each unit around the interests of members of that age, as well as increase the difficulty of your subject matter? Are your senior projects based on the interests of adolescent girls, or do you assume that if the foods cooked are more difficult, require more skill, and the girls learn something new each year, they will be interested?

Because a yeast bread is more difficult to prepare than biscuits, it does not always follow that older girls are interested in knowing how to prepare bread. Projects which increase in difficulty only, may be a hangover from more formalized curricula instead of being based on our newer education concepts.

4. Recognize the importance of motivation.

Promote activities that arouse interest in the projects. For example, boys might be interested in out-of-door cookery, older girls in entertaining. Do you promote activities that interest club members in the broad 4-H program? For example, foreign foods may help to interest members in 4-H'ers in other lands and the International Farm Youth Exchange program.

Keep in mind that the younger club members are more likely to prefer doing things alone, or with youngsters of the same sex, while older club members like to do things with the opposite sex.

5. Include boys as well as girls in the nutrition program.

Each year we have more boys taking food projects. It is important that boys, too, understand nutrition. More men are taking up cooking as a hobby. President Eisenhower himself likes to cook. Is your project written to appeal to boys as well as girls? Perhaps a unit in out-of-door cookery would help interest boys in foods.

6. Teach important things well.

Avoid crowding too many things in the program. This is a common failing. We try to teach everything in one easy lesson about cooking vegetables or meal planning.

7. Develop your program to educate and not as the basis for a contest.

A contest should be the followup of a project well done. We know that a contest does help stimulate interest in 4-H. Yet the girl who bakes hundreds of pies to enter a contest, but does not change her food habits to improve the family meals, may not be the girl most deserving of recognition.

Do you use a type of recognition that improves standards and avoids overemphasis on contests? By showing their products on an achievement day or

at a county fair, for example, a number of members may receive recognition, while in a contest that gives a simple prize, only one member is recognized. Sometimes the requirements we set up are difficult for members to reach. So, generally, let us have 4-H programs, not 4-H contests.

8. Can you relate your foods and nutrition project to community service?

For example, consider--

1. A bake sale to raise funds for a worthy cause.
2. Foods prepared as gifts for folks who are ill, Christmas baskets, and so forth.
3. Chuckwagon food service on a tour, at a fair, in connection with another activity.
4. An appreciation dinner for leaders, donors, or parents.
5. Refreshments for a group carrying out a community cleanup or safety campaign.

#### Checking the contents of your food and nutrition project

1. Do you include in each unit all the following:

Nutrition.  
Food preparation.  
Meal planning and service.  
Family cooperation and courtesies.  
Food selection and buying.  
Management.  
Care and use of equipment.

2. Is your project too technical?

Some of the 4-H projects are too technical and too difficult for the age group for which they are intended. Is the material itself still too technical? Do you, for example, try to teach material such as you learned in college about carbohydrates, minerals, and vitamins or do you emphasize food groups? Because a project is easy to read, it does not mean that technically it is not difficult.

3. Does your 4-H foods project start with breakfast?

We all recognize the importance of a good breakfast, and we know it is important for 4-H members to have a good breakfast. However, starting the 4-H project with breakfast is not necessarily the best way to get members to eat a good breakfast.

Starting junior members on a breakfast program often meets with opposition from mothers and leaders, as well as the girls.

Interviews with young girls showed they wanted to learn to bake--not to cook cereal. They were interested in making salads--not boiling eggs. The mothers did not want the young girls fussing in the kitchen when they were trying to get breakfast. The school buses left early, and the girls did not have time to prepare food in the mornings. Both local leaders and agents said the young girls were not interested in a breakfast project.

In one State where the beginning project started with breakfast and the enrollment was low, the specialist at the request of the agents wrote a pre-project geared to the interests of 10-year-olds, and the enrollment immediately picked up. If the projects are based on meals, it is usually better to start the project with lunch or supper.

4. Is your record book simple enough for the members to use?

Some record books are far too detailed to interest the younger members, so they are not kept successfully. Have a definite reason for asking for any type of information. Keep it simple, especially for junior members. Junior members are interested in learning skills. To ask them to keep cost records may discourage them from completing this project or taking on other projects.

5. Do the member and leader know what is required for a project?

Most leaders prefer that the requirements for a project be definite and understandable, but allow for initiative and originality. Junior projects may be more definite, while senior projects may allow for more imagination. Placing requirements on the first page of the bulletin where they are easily seen is preferable.

6. Do the requirements give some leeway?

For example, you can say, "Make muffins four times from the recipe on page 12," or you can say, for some leeway, "Make a hot bread your family will enjoy for supper four times."

If you select muffins, then you should be very sure it fits into the eating pattern of the families in your State. As the projects move from junior to senior, the leeway margin and choice should widen.

7. What part does judging play in your project? Are you using modern ways of judging, or do you still base your score card on 100 points? Do you use judging as a method teaching?

If a score card is used, it is best to base it on some other type of scoring than 100 percent. Check sheets are often more satisfactory than score cards. A check sheet is easy to use if the judge can check the flavor as Good, Acceptable, Poor, or perhaps Excellent. Very few of us can judge whether color should be given 15 or 30 points, and even if we could, this would not inform the member why the product received 15 rather than 30 points.

The question of weighing the score cards accurately is also very difficult. Should flavor have 30 points or 20 points? If you are stressing certain points you may want the judges to put more emphasis on these than on other points and, if so, it is well to discuss this with the judges ahead of time.

It is well to include a brief description of the desirable characteristics of a good product so that the 4-H member will have something by which to gage or evaluate her product.

Be sure the points you give are practical and have a meaning for the 4-H'er. For example, what does texture mean to a 10-year-old? Can you describe the texture in simple, understandable words so that she will know what you mean by the texture of the cookies? Are the standards you are setting so far from the ones the 10-year-old can achieve that she doesn't know what you are talking about?

Many persons cannot tell the difference between good and poor flavor, and ideas on what is good or poor vary widely with individuals and food preferences in various sections of the country.

It is well to remember that all judging calls for judgment. No scoring system will make up for a lack of judgment.

This is an example of a weighted check sheet:

FAIR EXHIBITS  
CANNED AND OTHER PRESERVED PRODUCTS

	Excel- lent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)
Package--practical.....				
Product--size of pieces uniform.....				
Color--natural, bright, uniform.....				
Texture--tender, plump, firm.....				
No defects or foreign matter.....				
Flavor--natural, not too sweet, too salty, or off-flavor.....				
Liquid--proper amount, natural flavor of product.....				

Can your 4-H bulletins be improved?

1. Is your bulletin well organized?

Have you an index, and is it easy to follow? Is it well arranged? Are the requirements in the front where the member can find them?

2. Is the readability good?

The bulletins are much easier to read than they were a few years ago, but putting technical material into simple language is not easy.

See section on writing sense for readers, page 56.

3. Is the printing in good, readable type?

Recipes should be printed in a type large enough for the reader to follow without picking up the bulletin. Ingredients are usually listed in heavier type than the directions. The reading matter can be of smaller type than the recipe material.

4. Do you have good illustrations?

An illustration should tell a story, explain a step or process, or heighten interest. Photographs should be clear, tell a definite story, and not have a confused background. The clothes worn in a photograph often date a bulletin. But photographs showing hands working, for example, give clearer detail and eliminate the chance of dating a picture. A good line drawing is much better than a poor picture.

5. Do your bulletins have a good layout?

The way illustrations are arranged, the amount of white space you have, and how your publication is "put together," all affect the usefulness and attractiveness of your bulletin.

6. What is the best size for a 4-H bulletin?

Many 4-H members like to put their bulletins in the regulation 4-H folders and record books. This calls for a bulletin 8 by 11 inches. Many State bulletins are appearing in this size.

7. Do your bulletins use color?

Color makes a bulletin more attractive. Sometimes colored ink or colored paper can add to your bulletin, with very little additional expense. Color on the cover, even though it isn't used inside, makes the publication look more interesting.

Are the recipes and menus well selected?

1. Do they fit into the food pattern of your State?

If muffins are served in most of the homes in your State, then the young 4-H'er will want to know how to make them; but if biscuits or cornbread are commonly served, perhaps these breads should be included in your first-year 4-H project.

2. Can the food be served in connection with family meals?

It is important that a girl learn how to make foods that fit into the family's eating pattern. If she can serve foods in connection with the family meals, she is more likely to get the support of her mother in her 4-H projects. Particularly if the younger member can prepare one dish which fits into a meal, rather than try to get the entire meal by herself, the 4-H project may meet with greater family approval.

3. Will the girl enjoy the food she is cooking?

Your projects will be much more popular if the foods are fun to make rather than merely "good for you."

4. Are the recipes written in steps?

It is much easier to follow recipe steps than a solid paragraph of printed material. This is true of recipes written for women as well as girls. The extra space is justified, even at the expense of using fewer recipes in the bulletin.

5. Is the recipe up to date?

It isn't necessary to use yeast that takes overnight to rise when we make rolls. We now have quick-acting yeast and newer methods of making rolls. We have found shorter ways of making cakes. Look at the recipes and see if there is a simpler way to do them and if you can make any short cuts.

6. Is the recipe fairly foolproof?

It's really amazing how directions that seem perfectly clear to you are hazy to someone else. Also some recipes are so exacting that two more stirs or one minute's extra cooking will ruin them. These are not for the junior 4-H'er!

7. Is the order of your recipe correct?

Ingredients should be listed in the order they are used in the recipe.

8. Is the recipe suitable for the age of the girls who are to make it?

Complex cakes, pies, and yeast breads are difficult for the younger members. On the other hand, older girls sometimes regard certain recipes as too childish for them.

Incidentally, don't ask girls to beat mixtures that are beyond their physical abilities.

Does your program include help for the leaders?

Leaders say they need more help. Do you have a food nutrition leader's guide, or do you prepare guides that really help the leaders to help the 4-H'ers?

You can help your local leader to do a better job if you--

1. Develop a broader point of view about the foods and nutrition project and how it relates to the interests and needs of boys and girls.
2. Understand the principles that will help them to explain the reasons for following recommended practices for food preparation, nutrition, marketing, selection, and preservation.
3. Give practical guidance in ways they can carry on 4-H foods and nutrition projects but try to develop individual initiative and ability.
4. Review previous training given leaders, and evaluate some segment to see if they received the help they needed.
5. Arrange to give new leaders extra help and encouragement; also all leaders, because all need well planned in-service training at frequent intervals.
6. Have representatives of leaders' groups sit in on planning sessions for training, so programs will better meet their needs and interests.

What do you know about teen-age eating?

1. Your Teen-Ager--How Well Fed Is He or She?

"What's there to eat, Mom--I'm starved," is the cry of most teen-agers--always hungry--and apparently always eating! Why, then, do studies in every part of the country show that these youngsters are the poorest fed members of the family?

1. Boys eat somewhat better than girls, but even they don't get enough milk, vegetables, and fruits.
2. Girls often do not drink enough milk.

3. Most teen-age girls are determined not to be fat.
4. Both boys and girls have so many interests that they consider food important as a means of sociability--snacks to enjoy together.
5. Studies at Iowa State College show that girls who have poor diets do not develop strong bones, have a harder time when they marry and become pregnant, and are less apt to produce strong, healthy children.

## 2. What Do Teen-Agers Want?

Studies of groups show that they want to:

1. Be independent--of parents, leaders, adults.
2. Be like the crowd.
3. Get recognition and approval of their group
4. Be like movie stars or great athletes.
5. Be with members of the opposite sex.

## 3. What Should Teen-Agers Know That Will Enable Them To Eat Better?

1. That a clear skin and sparkling eyes come from good food habits (few sweets).
2. That a good diet gives more pep, energy, and vitality.
3. That a good diet helps to make or keep a good figure.

## 4. What Can Parents and Leaders Do To Help Teen-Agers To Eat Better?

1. Check to find out what their club members are eating. Be sure to include snacks.
2. Help members understand how important food is to the well-being of good athletes.
3. Help them select nutritious snacks, and guide them away from carbonated soft drinks, candy, cake, cookies, pies, and doughnuts as snacks or club refreshments (but let them think it's their idea!).

## How Can You Find Out More About the Boys and Girls You Work With?

Research studies give you information as to what boys and girls eat in different sections, but they do not always tell you what they want to learn.

To find out, you can observe the foods they serve at club meetings and the menus they submit as part of projects. You can interview club members, leaders, and parents about what the boys and girls eat--what they like to prepare. You can read books about the development of boys and girls, and you can use questionnaires such as are included here to find what are the food habits and practices in your State.

The questionnaires in this section were worked out to help build a program in Ohio. The foods were based on those the nutrition specialists, 4-H Club leaders, and a group of home demonstration agents thought the boys and girls would eat or would like to know how to prepare.

Both a members' and a leaders' questionnaire were prepared. Answers may or may not agree, depending primarily on how well the leaders are able to observe and report.

The members' questionnaire was made to be given out at club meetings, and not designed as a mail questionnaire. It should be filled out under supervision.

The threefold object of the members' questionnaire is (1) to find the food patterns in the homes, (2) to find what the club members are now doing to help at home with foods, and (3) to determine members' interests.

The number of foods listed must be limited, or the member will not check accurately. Examples of certain types of food will have to represent all foods in that group. For example--cheese dishes may not mean much to a 10-year-old, so instead of using general terminology, we may use specific dishes such as cheese sandwiches or macaroni and cheese.

A common food like hotcakes has many names. Do you say hotcakes, pancakes, wheatcakes, flapjacks, griddlecakes, or what?

Suggestions for adapting 4-H foods and nutrition projects to meet developmental phases of youth<sup>1</sup>

Late Childhood

Developmental phase	Adaptation to project	Example
1. Establish appropriate dependence-independence patterns with adults.	Allow member to do independent work. Club member discusses project plans and activities with mother to fit them into meal scheme.	Member should prepare some definite food for meal, rather than just "Help mother."
2. Learn more physical skills.	Encourage member to use hands; for example--to measure, beat mixtures, handle hot food, serve food.	Project could include preparation of simple dishes, baking cookies, quick breads, serving a snack and simple lunches. It could also include preparation of fruits and vegetables for freezer.
3. Learn to exchange ideas and to influence an audience.	Encourage members to give simple demonstrations at club meetings.	Project could include demonstration--(1) how to use equipment; example--how to sift and measure flour. (2) How to prepare a food; example--how to make custard.
4. Learn to be a part of the age group of the same sex.	Most activities will be individual ones. Introduce some group activities with members of same sex.	Project might include, for example, club member to make cookies by himself and then serve to a few friends.
5. Stage at which some older person is idealized. May be parent, leader, movie stars, athletes.	Introduce through camp activities.	Have local football star help at 4-H Club Camp.
6. Develop an inquiring mind.	Help boys and girls learn the "why's" in addition to the "how's." Help find explanations.	Why biscuits rise. Why sift flour. Why we need milk.
7. Interests are varied instead of concentrated.	Introduce many different activities and experiences of relatively short duration.	1. Tours or field trips interspersed with other activities for variety; visit to the bakery might introduce the baking activity. 2. Several short demonstrations instead of one longer one. 3. Members instead of leader handling activity.

<sup>1</sup> Developmental phases as given in Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools (see reference, page 95), adapted to 4-H foods and nutrition projects by Inez Eckblad and Evelyn L. Blanchard.

## Early Adolescence

Developmental phase	Adaptation to project	Example
1. Establish independence from adults.	Work independently in preparing, serving, and cleaning up after cooking.	1. Project planned around family meals which members can prepare alone. 2. Food preservation activities selected so members work independently. Example-- Can fruit; use a water-bath canner.
2. Learn more advanced motor skills.	Encourage use of equipment such as electric mixer, boiling water-bath canner. More difficult processes in preparing, preserving, and serving food can be undertaken.	Project could include such items as yeast rolls-- manipulating; dough cakes-- using mixer; canning fruits-- using canner.
3. Learn to express oneself more clearly.	Promote demonstrations and judging at community meetings and achievement days.	Project could include demonstrations on subjects studied with more explanations of <u>why</u> the method is used. Judging could include emphasis on reasons.
4. Strive for approval of opposite sex, but also have strong group ties of same sex.	Arrange group activities of own age and sex, and occasional activities with groups of other sex.	Project activities might include, for example members preparing a snack and having friends in to watch television.
5. Becoming aware of appearance.	Glamorize nutrition on the basis of appearance, strength, and vitality in boys, and personality in girls.	Good breakfast program. Good nutrition for good skin and hair. Good nutrition as related to athletes.
6. Develop an inquiring mind.	Help them develop more accuracy in comparisons and values.	1. Judging why one product is better than another. 2. Why different ingredients are used. 3. Why more citrus fruit is valuable in diet.

## Late Adolescence

Developmental phase	Adaptation to project	Example
1. Establish independence as an adult.	Urge independent activity in selecting, preparing, serving meals; add responsibility as junior leader.	Whole project planned around meals. Special meals included; for example, meals from freezer, meals for special occasions, quick meals.
2. Learn social skills (and acquire managerial ability).	Encourage member to take responsibility for more planning and preparation of meals for family and friends. Let members assume adult responsibility in club.	Project could include table appointments, courtesies, hostessing, planning special parties.
3. Achieve level of reasoning of which capable.	Encourage member to develop originality and initiative in entire project.	Project activities could include planning and preparing the family's frozen food, taking over junior leadership, and demonstrating to members.
4. Explore possibility for future mate.	Encourage group activities boys and girls can share.	Project activities might include group planning and preparing an out-of-door meal for both boys and girls.
Prepare for marriage.	Learn more social and homemaking activities.	Plan wedding breakfast. Select equipment for cooking and table appointments for serving.
Prepare for responsible citizenship.	Encourage group activities in church and community affairs.	Assist with community picnics. Exchange food experiences with IFYE's. Prepare foreign foods. Serve on club camp foods committee.
5. Be aware of appearance and personality.	Help members get factual information on effect of food on appearance, skin condition, hair, weight.	Discussion groups: Girls--eating for good looks. Boys--training-table food. What things contribute to a pleasing personality.
6. Develop interest in a broader horizon.	Help members get a broader concept of different eating patterns, foods from different parts of the world, and eating in different places. Help members get broader concepts about how food is produced and distributed in our world.	Learn to eat and prepare different kinds of foods, including vegetables, foreign foods, and foods of different regions in this country.

## Suggestions for Use of 4-H Food and Nutrition Questionnaire for Leaders and Members

The questionnaire for members should be given by an agent or leader--not sent out by mail. The agent or leader should read the instruction page to the members. The questionnaire should be filled out by the individual under supervision. The members should not confer with each other.

The object of this member's questionnaire is (1) to find the food patterns in the homes, (2) to find what the girls are now doing in food preparation, and (3) to find what their interests are.

In order to keep the list from being too long we have tried to include at least one specific food of each type; for example, instead of cheese dishes we are asking about sandwiches and macaroni and cheese. More specific information will be obtained from the records. After the projects have been taken for a year, we can check back and see what the members have selected.

You may find it necessary to interpret what some of the foods are; for example, gelatin salad was one they asked me about.

The interest the member shows may be beyond her ability. She may want to learn to make an angelcake when she is 10 years old. This is all right. Let her check what she wants to check.

Seniors now in the projects may not be typical of all senior girls, so you will not want to have only the girls in foods projects fill out the questionnaire. Be sure to include boys as well as girls.

If 10 to 12-year-olds are in the group who are to fill out the questionnaire, it should be double spaced between the individual foods listed as set up in this workbook. When the child is filling out the table a sheet of paper may be used for guidelines.

Younger members should fill out this questionnaire in small groups of no more than 12, each group having adequate help from an agent or leader. It is essential that each child understand the question asked, the words used, and how to fill out the form.

For 4-H Club Members To Fill Out:

Which of the following food projects would you most like to take? Select three and put a check in front of those three.

- \_\_\_\_\_ a. Out-of-door cookery.
- \_\_\_\_\_ b. Meals from the freezer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ c. Buffet meals.
- \_\_\_\_\_ d. A picnic project.
- \_\_\_\_\_ e. Snacks to be served after the game, dance, or other gathering.
- \_\_\_\_\_ f. Foods for special events such as weddings and graduations.
- \_\_\_\_\_ g. Quick meals.
- \_\_\_\_\_ h. Foods for informal parties.
- \_\_\_\_\_ i. Foods from other countries.

### Instructions for answering questionnaire

To answer this questionnaire, start with the first food down the left-hand side (fruit salad). Then read the first question, which is above the first three columns of the table. If fruit salad is served often in your home, check under the word "Often." If it is not served often, but sometimes, put a check mark in the column under "Not very often." If it is not served in your home at all, put a check mark under "No."

Then move along to the next question, about whether you have ever fixed that kind of food. If you have done so yourself, or with someone else's help, put a check mark in the column under the "Yes."

Then answer the last question about whether or not you would like to learn to prepare it. If you would like to learn how, put a check mark in the column under the "Yes."

After you have finished the first food listed, do the same for the next one. Continue on through the list of foods.

Questionnaire for 4-H Club members

Club you belong to \_\_\_\_\_ Name \_\_\_\_\_

County \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_ Age \_\_\_\_\_

Girl \_\_\_\_\_ Boy \_\_\_\_\_ List foods projects you have taken or are now taking.

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

	Are the following foods served in your home?			Check the foods you have prepared or helped prepare.	Check the foods you would like to learn how to make.
	Often	Not very often	No	Yes	Yes
Salads:					
Fruit.....					
Fish or meat...					
Gelatin.....					
Potato.....					
Tossed green...					
Slaw.....					
Cottage cheese.					
Breads:					
Muffins.....					
Biscuits.....					
Cornbread.....					

	Are the following foods served in your home?			Check the foods you have prepared or helped prepare.	Check the foods you would like to learn how to make.
	Often	Not very often	No	Yes	Yes
Breads--Continued					
Yeast rolls.....					
Hotcakes.....					
Waffles.....					
Coffeecake.....					
Doughnuts.....					
Vegetables:					
Frozen.....					
Canned.....					
Fresh.....					
Greens.....					
Carrots.....					
Corn.....					
Snap beans.....					
Potatoes.....					
Green lima beans					
Green peas.....					
Cabbage.....					
Broccoli.....					
Cauliflower.....					
Tomatoes.....					
Mixed vegetable soup.....					
Desserts:					
Cookies.....					
Cakes.....					
Pies.....					

	Are the following foods served in your home?			Check the foods you have prepared or helped prepare.	Check the foods you would like to learn how to make.
	Often	Not very often	No	Yes	Yes
Desserts--					
Continued					
Puddings.....					
Frozen dessert.					
Fruit shortcake					
Custard.....					
Fruit--canned..					
frozen..					
fresh...					
Beverages:					
Milk drinks....					
Fruit drinks...					
Cocoa or chocolate.....					
Main dishes:					
Macaroni and cheese.....					
Broiled steak..					
Fried chicken..					
Sandwiches--					
cheese.....					
hotdogs.....					
hamburgers...					
Creamed soups..					
Spaghetti or noodle dish..					
Stews.....					
Meat loaf.....					
Chili.....					

	Are the following foods served in your home?			Check the foods you have prepared or helped prepare.	Check the foods you would like to learn how to make.
	Often	Not very often	No	Yes	Yes
Main dishes-- Continued					
Baked fish....					
Stuffed pork chops.....					
Baked beans or peas.....					
Add any other you care to.					

## References

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- Seeing Himself and Others. Glen C. Dildine. Children in Focus: Their Health and Activity, chap. 1, pp. 3-17. 1954 Yearbook, Amer. Assoc. for Health, Ed. and Recreation, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.

## Changing Attitudes of Youth<sup>2</sup>

Changing attitudes and principles in developing a youth organization. Education is a change in--

1. Knowledge--things we know.
2. Skills--things we do.
3. Attitudes--how we feel.

Good teaching includes an overview, so that emphasis on one thing becomes a part of the whole.

- I. When we listen to something intently, we always change our attitude--we may believe less in it or we may believe more.

### II. Normal changes of attitude.

#### A. Changes due to maturity level--

1. Preadolescent, generally ages from 9 to 13.
  - a. Boys want to be with boys, girls with girls (club implications).
  - b. Lean heavily on leaders.
  - c. Usually their family adjustment is good.
2. Adolescent, generally ages from 13 to 18.
  - a. Boys and girls together (club implications).
  - b. Becoming increasingly independent--want to preside, take responsibility, and want leaders in background; family ties less strong; group ties stronger; desire to comply with group standards; want to make decisions.
3. Past-adolescents, 18 to 24
  - a. No projects, unless on adult basis.
  - b. No leaders--will organize committees and "run their own show."

B. In crises we change attitudes--for example, at Pearl Harbor attack.

C. New responsibilities will change attitudes--job, marriage, and so forth.

D. Status will change attitudes--labor to capital, rich or poor, and so forth.

### III. Changes of attitude through sharing.

- A. We do not change people's attitudes--they change their own, change by sharing experiences.
- B. Sharing knowledge.
- C. Sharing in planning.
- D. Share in decision making.

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<sup>2</sup> T. T. Martin, former State 4-H leader, Missouri, given at Colorado A. and M. College, July 1953.

#### IV. Four classes of parents and attitudes toward children.

Not all parents are equally concerned with their children. Some attitudes we need to recognize in order to help our members are:

- A. Unconcerned--want to get children out of the way; don't go to meetings. Members drop by the way because they lack parent interest.
- B. Overindulgent--do it for the boy or girl; ignore age and ability levels.
- C. Overstrict--children must toe the line; do it whether they like it or not.
- D. Balanced--allow children to make decisions as they develop; conferences and decisions made as a family unit; parents cooperate and serve as leaders.

The unconcerned parent may more nearly be won over by personal visits or by inviting them to programs on which their children appear.





## KEEPING UP TO DATE IN OUR READING

Do the agents ask, "How can we keep up to date in foods and nutrition?" The following list gives some sources that help you to keep up to date.

### Periodicals

#### Periodicals available without cost

Dairy Council Digests, National Dairy Council, 111 North Canal Street, Chicago 6.

Nutrition News, National Dairy Council, 111 North Canal Street, Chicago 6.

Current Research in Nutrition. Nutrition Foundation, Inc., Chrysler Building, New York 17.

Borden's Review of Nutrition Research. Borden Co., 350 Madison Avenue, New York 17.

Food and Nutrition News. National Livestock and Meat Board, 407 South Dearborn Street, Chicago 6.

Kitchen Reporter. Kelvinator Kitchen, Detroit, Mich.

Nutrition Research Bulletin. American Dairy Association, Chicago 6.

#### Periodicals available by membership or subscription

Nutrition Reviews. Nutrition Foundation, Inc., Chrysler Building, New York.

Journal of the American Dietetic Association. American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11.

Journal of Home Economics. American Home Economics Association, 1600 20th Street NW., Washington 9, D. C.

Food Research. Garard Press, 119 West Park Avenue, Champaign, Ill.

What's New in Home Economics. Harvey & Howe, Inc., 919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11.

Forecast of Home Economists. Forecast Publishing Co., 6 East 39th Street, New York 16.

Food Field Reporter. Topics Publishing Co., Inc., 330 West 42d Street, New York 18.

Food Technology. Institute of Food Technologists. 11606 South Bell Avenue, Chicago 43.



## Government Publications

### Foods and nutrition publications of--

U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.

State experiment stations.

### Books

#### Good nutrition

Food and Health. H. C. Sherman. Rev. ed., 290 pp. Macmillan Co., New York. 1947.

Chemistry of Food and Nutrition. H. C. Sherman. 72 pp. Macmillan Co. New York. 1952.

Nutrition in Public Health. Lucy H. Gillett. 303 pp. W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia. 1946.

Handbook of Nutrition: A Symposium. Amer. Med. Assoc. Rev. ed., 586 pp. Chicago. 1951.

Nutrition in Health and Disease. L. F. Cooper, E. M. Barber, H. S. Mitchell and H. S. Rymbergen. Ed. 12, 790 pp. J. B. Lippincott Co., New York. 1953.

Nutrition and Diet in Health and Disease. James S. McLester and Wm. J. Darby. Ed. 6, 710 pp. W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia. 1952.

Essentials of Nutrition. H. C. Sherman and C. S. Lanford. Ed. 3, 454 pp. Macmillan Co., New York. 1951.

The Nutritional Improvement of Life. H. C. Sherman. 270 pp. Columbia Univ. Press, New York. 1954.

Nutrition and Physical Fitness. Jean L. Bogert. 610 pp. W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia. 1949.

Nutrition. Margaret S. Chaney and Margaret Ahlborn. Ed. 4, 448 pp. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. 1949.

Food Becomes You. Ruth M. Leverton. 192 pp. Univ. Nebr. Press, Lincoln. 1952.

Food, Nutrition and Health. E. V. McCollum and J. E. Becker. 146 pp. Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore 18. 1947.

The Psychology of Diet and Nutrition. Lowell S. Selling and Mary A. Ferraro. 192 pp. W. W. Norton & Co., New York. 1945.

Nutrition for Health. H. F. Kilander. 425 pp. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York. 1951.

Good Food and Nutrition for Young People and Their Families. Edna P. Amidon, D. E. Bradbury, and V. V. Drenkhahn. 323 pp. John Wiley & Sons., New York. 1946.

Present Knowledge in Nutrition. Nutr. Foundation, Inc., New York 17. 1953.

#### Food preparation

Experimental Cookery. Belle Lowe. Ed. 3., 611 pp. John Wiley & Sons, New York. 1943.

How's and Whys of Cooking. Evelyn G. Halliday and Isabel Noble. Rev. ed., 328 pp. Ginn & Co., New York. 1950.

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